

THE RELATIONSHIP OF EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY  
TO THE CURRICULUM ORIENTATION PREFERENCES  
OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS

By

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School  
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By

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The focus of this research was to explore the possible relationship between certain educational philosophies and curriculum orientation preferences held by prospective teachers in varying types of teacher education programs. Two philosophical systems, Experimentalism and Rationalism, and two curriculum orientations, Experientialist and Intellectual Traditionalist, were selected for investigation. Five types of academic specialization were selected for investigation: English, mathematics, social science, science, and special education. In addition, three types of programs of study were selected for investigation: elementary, middle, and secondary. A conceptual model is presented to provide a framework from which hypotheses were generated to guide analysis.



To collect data relevant to the focus of this study a self-report questionnaire was utilized to gather information from selected groups of preservice teachers enrolled in introductory education courses. The 264 preservice teachers comprising the sample were drawn from selected colleges in north and central Florida.

The reported means for each group of preservice teachers indicated that there was consistency among the groups as to their choice of educational philosophy and curriculum orientation. The educational philosophy of Rationalism was more popular than Experimentalism across each of the three levels of program of study and four of five academic specializations. Further, each group of preservice teachers selected the Experientialist curriculum orientation as most reflective of their position.

A two-way analysis of variance was computed as well as chi squares for each response to determine the amount of variance accounted for by the model. The purpose of these analyses was to determine whether any of the groups differ significantly from any other group. Statistical analyses revealed that there was no relationship between the educational philosophies under investigation and the independent variables, types of programs of study and types of academic specialization. However, differences were revealed regarding curriculum orientation by type of program of study. First, the Experientialist orientation was significantly more popular with the group of preservice teachers intending to teach at the elementary level. Second, the Traditionalist orientation was significantly more popular with middle-level preservice teachers than with those intending to teach at the elementary level.

## CHAPTER I STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

### The Description of the Study

This study investigates the relationships between preservice teachers' educational philosophy and their preferences regarding selected dimensions of curriculum orientation. Specifically, the study sought to investigate the relationship of the selected responses of preservice teachers to the philosophies of Experimentalism and Rationalism, and to the Experientialist and Intellectual Traditionalist curriculum orientations. A conceptual model has been constructed to provide a framework from which hypotheses could be generated to guide analysis. Secondary purposes involve exploratory investigation of relationships among preservice teachers' educational philosophy, curriculum improvement preferences, academic specialization, and program of study. Specifically, answers to the following questions were sought:

1. To what extent are there significant differences in the educational philosophy and curriculum improvement preferences among preservice teachers by area of academic specialization: English, mathematics, social science, science, and special education?
2. To what extent are there significant differences among preservice teachers by program of study: elementary, middle, and secondary?

3. To what extent are existing differences among preservice teachers by area of academic specialization similar among different programs of study?

### Need for the Study

A recent example of curriculum reform that points to the vital need for achieving consistency between the philosophical beliefs of teachers and the activities required of them is the middle school movement. Reacting to the conflicting professional views and public pressures of the late fifties and early sixties about the purpose of intermediate level schooling, several professional educators proposed a curriculum reformation based on the characteristics and tasks of the early adolescent. At first glance the purpose of reorganizing schools to meet the needs of the early adolescent more effectively appeared to be well established. As of 1993 the number of middle schools in the United States had increased from 1000 to over 5000 (George & Alexander, 1993). Studies indicated moderate increases in the number of schools adopting middle level practices such as interdisciplinary teams, advisory groups, and transitional programs (Mac Iver & Epstein, 1991, 1993). National surveys however also revealed that while the number of school districts reorganizing by grade level continued to increase, many principles of effective school and curriculum organization advocated by proponents of the middle school movement had not been implemented (Alexander & McEwin, 1989; Beane, 1990; Epstein & Mac Iver, 1990; Harrington-Lueker, 1990).

For example, interdisciplinary team organization (ITO) was proposed as an essential component of the middle school concept sometime ago (Alexander & Williams,

1969). According to Jackson (1989) however, only 37% of all middle schools utilized interdisciplinary team teaching at any time between grades five and nine. The concept of heterogeneous grouping of students for instruction was even more strongly supported by research evidence. According to George (1990) most schools however appeared to be unable to respond to research evidence regarding curriculum and instruction improvements and continued to “track” students for instruction, homogeneously grouped by ability, in preparation for secondary schooling. Consequently, the definition of what middle level education reorganization had accomplished had increasingly become the subject of philosophical discussion and deliberation (Beane, 1990).

Considerable evidence documents the current interest in improving middle level schools. Serious efforts to substantiate the current and potential value of upholding the goals for middle level schooling include several recent textbooks and a number of publications from state agencies. The National Middle School Association reissued its 1982 document *This We Believe* (1992) which explains the ten “essentials” of all true middle level schools. Publications such as *Caught in the Middle* (1987) and *Making the Middle Grades Work* (1988) create an image of curriculum firmly grounded in the characteristics of the learner at the middle level. Emphases on organizational aspects of teacher closeness to students and the exploratory nature of the curriculum are examples of approaches designed to put the learner-based orientation into practice. However, teachers, particularly beginning and preservice teachers, often perceive a gap between this image of middle level curriculum and their experiences in middle school classrooms.

Since the beginning and throughout the middle school reform movement, proponents of restructuring these schools have emphasized the need for personnel trained for and committed to the education of middle level students. (Williams, 1965; Alexander & McEwin, 1988; George & Alexander, 1993). One well-known textbook on the junior high school written during the beginning of the middle school movement states:

perhaps the most serious obstacle to the educational development of the junior high school has been the lack of teachers specifically prepared for work at this level. This long-standing and all-too-general problem has elicited such labels as "the blind spot in teacher education" and "the forgotten teaching area." (Van Til et al., 1967, p. 49)

Still accurate today, this statement is testament to the foresight of VanTil et al. Many proponents of middle level education point to the limited and slow expansion of specific teacher training programs as a major reason that the potential of the movement has rarely been realized in practice (Scales, 1992; Scales & McEwin, 1994). According to Scales (1994) previous research has shown that only a fifth of middle grade teachers undergoes any special preparation for teaching at the middle level. Although one of the primary recommendations regarding the preparation of preservice teachers involves increasing the duration and quality of field-based experiences (VanZandt & Harlan, 1995), Valentine and his associates (1993) report a drop in student teaching experiences in the middle grades from 58% in 1981 to 32% in 1992. Other sources point to issues such as insufficient leadership training, various political forces, or low quality preparation programs as factors that have kept middle level curriculum from developing into the image of early proponents (Alexander & McEwin, 1984, Swaim, 1993).

Research and reports during the late 1980s and early 1990s indicate that teacher-education institutions began taking purposeful steps to improve middle level teacher education. Proponents of middle school reform challenged teacher educators to design programs with a strict middle level focus rather than slightly revised elementary or secondary perspectives (Manning, 1993). Teachers preparing for careers in middle level schools are advised to be well versed in young adolescent development and middle school concepts and philosophical beliefs. However, possible solutions to the obstruction of middle level curriculum goals may also be found in the method by which future teachers are trained. Rather than placing emphasis on training teachers with specific knowledge needed for teaching at the middle level, teacher educators could take a closer look at the practical knowledge preservice teachers bring to a middle level education program.

Many teacher educators today are no longer concerned only with importing knowledge about teaching. Johnston (1992) asserts that one of the foremost tasks of teacher educators should be that of exploring the evolving practical knowledge of our student teachers so that we can build programs that assist them to develop, understand, articulate, and utilize that practical knowledge. This type of knowledge is not viewed as a body of fixed, stable concepts that are applied in practice, but rather as something that is transient and subject to change. According to Clandinin (1986, p. 19) it is "experiential, value-laden, purposeful and oriented to practice". In this view, teacher education provides avenues for student teachers to understand the values, attitudes, and beliefs they bring to a preservice teacher education program and then to plot and monitor their own professional growth thereafter.

### Statement of the Problem

There is a vital need for educational leaders to achieve consistency between the philosophical beliefs of teachers and the activities required of them in the name of curriculum reform or improvement. Schubert (1986) contends that the most salient force in the curriculum improvement process is the professional educator, specifically the curriculum leader and the teacher. To claim that a particular change in curriculum and instruction is needed however requires a congruous philosophy or ideological platform of values, beliefs, and ideals. Mahlios and Maxson (1994) contend that students come into teacher education programs with fairly consistent, yet vague, views of schooling and children. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) teachers often are not cognizant of their philosophical beliefs and find the discovery and articulation process to be frustrating.

Guilford (1977) describes two forces that go to work almost simultaneously as an area for improvement is identified, one convergent and the other divergent. The convergent force serves to clarify and articulate the problem, thereby reducing the focus to points of emphasis. The divergent force then considers possible courses of action and their consequences. Berman (1968) contends that problems of conflicting interest cannot be resolved until the convergence force, that is, the focus point of emphasis or priority is clearly established.

Therefore, in order for curriculum improvements to be understood and perceived as worthwhile, an articulate and defensible sense of direction must exist. Unruh and Unruh (1984) assert that without a theoretical base, the underlying principles or

conceptions of curriculum improvement movements can produce piecemeal reforms, curriculum imbalance, and short-lived innovations. Conflicting conceptions of curriculum, and what it might mean to bring about curriculum improvements, can also lead to controversy in the school and community. However, little has been done to describe the ideological or theoretical base of the professionals who are expected to be implementing the changes, namely the preservice teachers. Little is known about relationships between their educational philosophies and the substantive preferences they identify in the process of effecting curriculum improvements.

During the last decade, a number of educators have suggested that before we can significantly improve teacher preparation, we must first gain insight into the thinking, rather than just the behavior, of future teachers (Goodman, 1988). Attention has recently been focused on empirical study related to the training question, e.g., the nature of preservice students' images of curriculum improvements (Mahlios & Maxson, 1994). The images they explore are those that represent the means through which changing conceptions of teaching, subject matter, and the needs of students are to be translated into the actual opportunities for learning provided by future teachers. They also represent the means for resolving the disparities between idealized images of what teaching will be like and the actual practices preservice teachers witness during their internship experiences.

Regarding the beliefs of preservice teachers, Mahlios and Maxson state:

typically, we know little about the views our students hold, and thus have little if any knowledge of how these characteristics will interact with the dominant concepts incorporated within our respective teacher education programs. It may in fact be that part of the failure of some of our students to 'learn' program concepts



is a result of the clash between views within themselves and those contained in our preparation programs. (Mahllos & Maxson, 1994, p. 11)

If proponents of curriculum improvement are to continue to call for education programs designed to encourage a particular curriculum orientation in its graduates, the processes by which student teachers come to understand the meaning of curriculum will require more careful examination and exploration than has been evident in the past.

### Limitations of the Study

Generalizability of the findings may be possible given replication of this study in other teacher education programs. However, the following major limitations associated with this research have been identified:

1. Since there is no recognized instrument designed specifically for the purpose of this study, the researcher developed an appropriate questionnaire comprised of previously tested research instruments.

2. Participants selected for inclusion in this study were not randomly selected. Students in several teacher education programs in Florida comprised the sample from the accessible population for data collection.

3. The research design used in this study is a one measurement, cross-sectional design. Since participants responded to all self-report questionnaire items at one time, they may have responded reactively and more consistently than what would have been true at different times.

4. Interpretations of findings are limited because the researcher does not know whether particular variables (e.g., program of study) are a cause or result of their preferences for curriculum improvement.

### Assumptions

The following assumptions were made relative to the conduct of this study:

1. Educational philosophies can be analyzed and compared relative to their positions on knowledge (ontology), truth (epistemology), and values (axiology).
2. The instrument developed by the researcher was appropriate for identifying certain philosophical orientations.

### Importance of the Study

A review of the literature on this topic reveals many studies on preservice teachers' beliefs (e.g., Hollingsworth, 1989; Zeichner & Gore, 1990) that reaffirm the notion that teacher education programs seem to have little influence on the students' preconceived belief systems. However, according to Rodriguez (1993) several studies have refuted this claim and demonstrated that students indeed have been significantly influenced by their academic course work. Alverman (1981) states that some students welcomed the inner struggle produced by the dissonance between the university courses and the practicum experience and that, in fact, it served as driving force for encouraging reflection on the value of their teaching strategies and beliefs. Goodman (1988) proposes a proactive approach to teacher education by first, and foremost, identifying the students' intuitive

screens, that is the points of reference students use to make sense of their experiences as they sift through the information (educational theories, ideas and strategies) presented to them during their teacher education program (p. 134).

This study is unique in its contribution to the volume of knowledge in the field of teacher education because it explores how the educational philosophies of preservice teachers relate to their substantive preferences for improving curriculum. The primary focus in the study is to compare the educational philosophies and orientations of curriculum held by these students. A secondary focus is to assess the extent to which these images may be related to students' program of study and academic specialization.

The findings of this study will provide information that will be of value to teacher educators, and most importantly, should be useful to the prospective teachers themselves. Many teacher educators are engaging student teachers in the practice of reflective teaching; making rational and ethical choices about what and how to teach and assuming responsibility for those choices (Ross et al., 1993). According to Killion and Todnem (1991) busy people, including student teachers, rarely engage in reflective experiences unless they are given some time, some structure, and expectations to do so. It would be useful for students of teaching to have a tool that will enable them to reflect upon and construct practical knowledge of the reasons or explanations for their decisions (Johnston, 1992). Connelly and Clandinin (1988) suggest that images of curriculum can provide a language of practice for teachers because they can use these images to articulate the basis of their decisions and explore the reason they hold particular beliefs. Further, as a student-teacher makes choices to accept or reject philosophies overtly representative of

their particular program of study, such as those endorsed for example in middle level education, there may be reason for foundational course work that provides constructs for reflection on the reasons for those choices.

### Definition of Terms

Definitions of selected terms and concepts adopted for use in this study are listed below:

Academic specialization refers to a block of required course work chosen by preservice teachers from a specific subject area or academic department. Examples include English, mathematics, social science, science, and special education.

Curriculum is a plan for providing sets of learning opportunities for persons to be educated (Saylor et al., 1981).

Curriculum improvement refers to the positive change in curriculum brought about in the course of everyday actions among teachers, curriculum leaders, and students (Schubert, 1986).

Curriculum orientation is a general school of thought regarding curriculum research, theory, and practice. Each position represented; Experientialist, Intellectual Traditionalist, and Social Behaviorist is characterized by wide-ranging and overlapping assumptions about what is most important to teach, how learning occurs, the roles of teachers and students, and what classrooms ought to be like (Schubert, 1986).

Curriculum theory refers to a belief system that provides a frame of reference to guide the practitioner in making rational choices among alternative courses of action and

sources of knowledge, in making value decisions, and in predicting the consequences of various solutions to dilemmas (Unruh & Unruh, 1984).

Early adolescent names a stage of human development that begins just prior to puberty and extends through the early stage of adolescence. The nature of the student at the middle level is generally considered from three major perspectives: (1) cognitive or intellectual development, (2) social and emotional development, and (3) physical and physiological development.

Educational philosophy refers to a reasonably coherent set of values and fundamental assumptions used as a basis for evaluating and guiding educational practice (Phenix, 1961).

Images of curriculum are a personal practical knowledge that embodies a person's experience, finds expression in practice, and is the perspective from which new experience is taken (Clandinin, 1986).

Interdisciplinary team organization is a way of organizing the faculty so that a group of teachers share (1) the same group of students; (2) the responsibility for planning, teaching, and evaluating curriculum and instruction in more than one academic area; (3) the same schedule; and (4) the same area of the building (George & Alexander, 1993).

Middle level education refers to a transitional phase of schooling that considers the educational needs of students usually enrolled in grades 6-8 or 5-8 and 10-14 years of age, builds on the students' prior experiences at the elementary level, and leads toward the high school level (George & Alexander, 1993).

Middle level proponents are professional educators who, in the late 1950s and early 1960s, began a movement toward consensus about the purposes of intermediate schooling. Prominent spokespersons included William Alexander, Donald Eichhorn, Paul George, John Lounsbury, and Gordon Vars (Messick & Reynolds, 1992).

Preservice teachers are students engaged in the formal study of teaching within a program consisting of three dominant features: (1) general education course work, (2) subject matter specialties, and (3) pedagogy, including student teaching and other clinical experiences (Lanier & Little, 1986).

Program of study is a college program designed for the preparation of professional teachers in either elementary, middle, or secondary education.

Tracking refers to the practice of dividing students for instruction into class-size groups based on a measure of the students' perceived ability or prior achievement. In order to reduce the differences between students and make teaching more effective, differentiated learning experiences are designed and delivered to each group (George, 1988).

## CHAPTER II THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Presented here is a review of literature and research studies selected to provide a direction in this study and to assist in the interpretation of the findings. An initial discussion describes the nature of curriculum and curriculum development. Following a discussion of competing values and images of schooling, a conceptual framework consisting of educational philosophies and orientations to curriculum improvements is presented as the basis for establishing a conceptual model. A final section is comprised of research questions and hypotheses designed to validate these relationships.

### The Nature of Curriculum

A dictionary definition suggests that curriculum is “a fixed series of studies required, as in a college, for graduation.” Educational scholars however describe and promote images of curriculum with varied and conflicting descriptions. Some characterize curriculum simply as an organized set of intended outcomes leading to the achievement of educational goals. Others assert that curriculum is more broad in scope in that it incorporates everything that happens inside a school. A sense of the range of alternative views is conveyed in the following examples:

1. Curriculum is “a plan for achieving intended learning outcomes; a plan concerned with purpose, with what is to be learned, and with the results of instruction” (Unruh & Unruh, 1984, p. 96).

2. Curriculum is “the content of instruction; what is intentionally taught to students in a school or classroom; the guides, books, and materials that teachers use in teaching students” (Glickman, 1985, p. 307).

3. Curriculum is “the planned school program that includes a set of general goals for all students” (Messick & Reynolds, 1992, p. 56).

The image of curriculum that is adopted for this study is organized around the heuristic provided by Schwab (1978) when he referred to the “commonplace of teaching.” For teaching to occur, someone, (a teacher) must be teaching someone (a student) about something (a curriculum) at some place and point in time (a milieu). As Lanier and Little (1986) point out, the teachers of student teachers represent a diversity of roles and backgrounds--college professors, graduate assistants, public school supervisors, and others. The students are adults who are either prospective or practicing teachers. The curriculum includes studies in general education, academic specializations, and pedagogy. The milieu of teacher education includes the general society, the university, the school district, the school, and various other contextual settings that affect teacher education in America.



### The Nature of Curriculum Development

Curriculum development is generally expressed as a planning process aimed at improving the achievement of educational goals. These goals are typically derived from the study of (1) who our students are, (2) what content is important for them to know, and (3) how they learn best. These three sources are the foundation for decisions regarding curriculum improvement. Procedures and strategies for affecting improvement however vary according to the source deemed most important. The following views are taken from the citations that defined curriculum in the previous section:

1. Curriculum development is “a planning process: a complex process of assessing needs, identifying desired learning outcomes, preparing for instruction to achieve the outcomes, and meeting the cultural, social, and personal needs that the curriculum is to serve” (Unruh & Unruh, 1984, p. 97).

2. Curriculum development is “the revision and modification of the content, plans, and materials of classroom instruction” (Glickman, 1985, p. 7).

3. “Effective school programs must be developed by the staff of a particular school in response to that setting and student group. Teacher creativity and teamwork are required to adapt knowledge from the different subjects and academic disciplines so it will involve students and meet their needs” (Messick & Reynolds, 1985, p. 82).

According to Schubert (1986), two general approaches to curriculum improvement have dominated the literature. The first, “top-down” improvements are seen as being carefully formulated prior to application from sources outside of the scope of application. The other evolves in the course of everyday interactions between teachers,

administrators, students, and community. This “grass-roots” approach to improvement is characterized by its inclusion of those who are most directly affected by the improved situation.

These two approaches conceive of the planning process in very different ways. The top-down orientation sees curriculum improvements as the result of research conducted by experts. The task becomes to convince teachers, as implementors of curriculum, of the worth of the proposed improvement. The work of Kurt Lewin (1951) is considered classic in this field. His work advocates the need to “unfreeze” old conceptions, introduce new ones through the aid of outside experts, and finally “freeze in” improvements to the point that experts are no longer needed for maintenance of the innovation.

In the decades following Lewin, organization developers have created a stockpile of techniques for working with organizations seeking improvement. Perhaps the greatest source of this type of expertise is found in the literature directed toward business executives. “In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America’s Best-Run Companies” by Peters and Waterman (1982) is one of the most popular and highly acclaimed resources for those seeking improvements in schools as well as business. Much of the literature of this movement has been adopted by Marks and Nystrand (1981) in education, and Doll (1982) in curriculum.

According to Fullan (1994) small- and large-scale studies of top-down strategies have consistently demonstrated that local implementation fails in the vast majority of cases. The grass-roots proponents argue that the problem with the top-down orientation

is precisely its relation to its origins in agriculture and business. As Hamilton et. al. (1977) point out, the notion of learning as the product, often measured by standardized testing, is too simplistic and too insensitive. Improvements from the grass-roots orientation are seen as emerging from the experience of all persons engaged in schooling. Participants include not only teachers, but parents, students, and administrators. Together they are immersed in the situation and are best equipped to identify needs and take an active role in the assessment process.

Teachers must, as Goodlad (1984) warns, think of the societal, institutional, instructional, individual, and ideological all at once when reflecting on curriculum matters. Whether one thinks of teachers as creators and developers of curriculum, or as the primary implementors, they are key agents in the process of what curriculum becomes. In the preservice teacher education program, attitudes that build curriculum improvement are being cultivated. Schubert (1986, p. 380) submits that “the seedbed of professional development that brings curriculum improvement lies in the education of teachers.” Therefore, it is essential that preservice teachers understand widely different orientations to the concept of curriculum.

### Competing Values and Images of Schooling

The undercurrent for reflection on school matters is represented by four widely held but conflicting values: equity, excellence, efficiency, and liberty (Sergiovanni et. al., 1987). A detailed account of the relationship of each is presented in Appendix B. These values exist in a constant state of tension such that too much emphasis on any one hinders

expression of each of the other three. Sergiovanni et al. (p. 13) assert that “most of the today’s proposals for school reform emerge from the social Darwinism view and squarely contradict the egalitarian ideal upon which the modern public-school system has traditionally rested.” An illustration that outlines a system for the contrast and comparison of alternative values and ideals is presented in Figure 1.

A dictionary definition suggests that Egalitarianism is “a social philosophy advocating the removal of inequalities among people, especially with respect to social, political, and economic rights and privileges.” The image of egalitarianism is represented in the model by the value of equity combined with liberty. Education professionals have adopted this image as an inclusive policy, with varied curriculum, that attempt to include as many students in schools as long as possible. Regarding the egalitarian ideal and the American high school one author states,

at base, the public schools are bound by the egalitarian ideal. As a nation we retained the hope that our citizens will have some fairly even chance at social, economic and political equality. Since education is one of the most important ways to obtain that equality, all children are obligated to come to school and similarly the schools are obligated to appeal to all their students. (Cusick, 1983, p. 25)

However, many educators favor a more uniform rather than a differentiated curriculum to ensure that a single measure of excellence will be employed.

The image of social Darwinism is represented in the model by the value of excellence combined with efficiency. This philosophy reasons that life is a competitive struggle and that the strongest survive due to natural selection. The pressures of survival stimulate the strongest to develop skills that benefit human evolution. Consequently, educators with this image of schooling believe that competitive schools will produce the

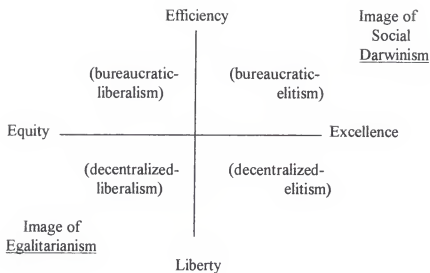


Figure 1. Competing values and images of schooling.

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Source: Values and images items adapted from "Educational Governance and Administration," Sergiovanni et al., 1987.

type of student that will eventually provide the leadership needed for our country to prevail in world matters. However, egalitarians regard this policy as exclusive, sanctioning failure for students who cannot measure up to standards.

### Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study combines preservice teachers' philosophical perspective and curriculum orientation perspective with the illustration of competing values and images presented in Figure 1. This combination resulted in a conceptual model hypothesizing relationships between preservice teachers' educational philosophy and substantive preferences inherent in curriculum orientation.

#### Philosophical Perspective

The definition of educational philosophy adopted for use in this study is that proposed by Phenix (1961, p.57): "a reasonably coherent set of values and fundamental assumptions used as a basis for evaluating and guiding educational practice". A similar conception is reflected by Schubert (1986, p. 119) who describes a teacher's philosophy as a "realm of fundamental assumptions about the nature of truth, wisdom, goodness, beauty, reason and justice". Curran (1966) suggests that "sets of concepts" of reality, knowledge and values are interrelated to form a philosophy. In each case, educational philosophy is described as something "real"; a fundamental component of the decision-making process of educators.

Greene (1986, p. 479) has suggested that the main concern of "doing" philosophy with respect to teaching is "to clarify the language used in describing or explaining the

practice of teaching, to penetrate the arguments used in what is done, to make visible what is presumed in the formulation of purposes and aims. It is as well, to stimulate reflectiveness about the intentions in which teaching begins, the values that are espoused, the ends that are pursued". Curran (1966) claims that a philosophy must be understood in conjunction with the analytical study of teaching in order to gain insight into just what the teacher views to be the goals of education. Noting the importance for educational leaders to understanding their own philosophy, Sergiovanni and Starrat (1983) claim that

what is needed is some firm footing in principle. Just as a political party is supposed to base its decisions and action on a party platform upon which it seeks election, so too, supervisory personnel need a platform upon which, and in the light of which, they can carry on their work. (Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1983, pg. 226-227).

Glickman (1979) asserts that ultimately, what goes into a curriculum is derived from a philosophical decision about the purpose of schools. Philosophies are numerous and overlapping and many have historical roots in each other. With educational application in mind, divergent philosophies can be simplified and classified. Overriding conceptual categories are created by grouping various philosophies that have central agreement on the type and scope of education. While there may be disagreement on the specific nature of knowledge, truth, and reality, they hang together because they are in agreement on the purpose and treatment of education (Glickman & Esposito, 1979).

Clark and Peterson (1986) report that research on teachers' implicit theories constitutes the smallest and youngest part of the research on teacher thinking. Researchers attempts to build a case for logical consistency between educational philosophy and educational practices have generally focused on the construction of a valid

and reliable instrument which would measure possession of an educational philosophy. One example is the "Philosophy Preference Assessment" (Wiles & Bondy, 1993). This self-assessment instrument, based upon five distinct educational philosophies, is designed to "show preferences on value-laden educational questions" (p.49). A review of the literature discloses few attempts which measure the consistency with which such a philosophy is held or practiced. The following review of related research presents studies that led to the development of the instrument used in this study.

Members of the faculty of George Peabody College developed an instrument designed to identify the educational philosophy of teachers. Participants were asked to select one of three responses which most closely coincided with their own beliefs. Each of the twelve sets of responses were developed to reflect the educational philosophy of realism, idealism, or pragmatism. Lodge (1947) reported a copy of the scale in the appendix of his book, Philosophy of Education. No evidence was provided regarding the reliability or validity of the instrument.

Kerlinger and Kaya (1959) developed a scale to measure teachers' beliefs in terms of two global educational philosophies, Progressivism and Traditionalism. The self-report instrument was designed to fit an experimental theory paradigm in which permissive-progressive attitudes and restrictive-traditional attitudes were defined as being characteristic of a dichotomy in educational thinking. As reported by McAtee and Punch (1977), ten items represent three critical references for both the progressive and traditional dimensions. These are as follows: child needs, individual differences, and social learning for the progressive dimension; discipline, subject matter, and moral standards for the



traditional dimension. According to Adwere-Boamah et al. (1982), the results of the investigation corroborate and lend support to Kerlinger and Kaya's two component conceptual scheme of educational philosophical orientations; Progressivism and Traditionalism.

Another effort to develop an instrument for measuring the educational philosophy of teachers is a two-philosophies (empirical-rational) Q-sort instrument developed by Gowan, Newsome, and Chandler (1961). The instrument consisted of 50 statements considered empirical and 50 considered rational. Curran, Gordan, and Doyle (1966) transformed the GNC scale into an ordinal attitude scale and administered it to undergraduate and graduate classes in the philosophy of education at the University of Florida. Upon item analysis, 40 of these 100 items yielded significant discriminatory power to measure the degree and consistency to which a person's conception of education is conforms to experimentalism or rationalism in the three areas of ontology, epistemology and axiology. These items were then combined with items from the work of Sayers (1966), Ryans (1961), Kerlinger (1961), and Oliver (1953) which were felt to be "philosophic." The scale was administered twice for test-retest reliability, and was analyzed by class rank. The results showed graduate students to be more aligned with Experimentalism than undergraduate students. Added to the instrument was a set of epistemological items from the work by a faculty committee which had been charged with development of a list of concepts which were thought to be important for graduates of the college to hold. Further item analyses yielded a final pool of 50 items which had, over the several test administrations with graduate and undergraduate University of Florida

classes, maintained statistically significant discriminatory power. A 24 item instrument was developed that would reliably and validly measure groups on the continuum of a conceptual philosophy of education that ranged from most aligned with experimentalism to most aligned with rationalism. The results of the study revealed that the population sampled was skewed in the direction of experimentalism. Despite the shortage of subjects demonstrating alignment with rationalism, the items were able to yield satisfactory discriminatory power. The authors (Curran et al., p. 392) concluded that “both item discrimination and test validity coefficients would be strengthened if the test was now administered to a larger sample of subjects”. An illustration that outlines a system for the contrast and comparison of educational philosophies and alternative values and ideals is presented in Figure 2.

#### Curriculum Orientation Perspective

To the extent that teachers differ in their images of ideal citizens living in an ideal society, they have varying orientations to curriculum. These orientations or views of curriculum are characterized by assumptions about what is most important to teach, how learning occurs, the roles of teachers and students, and what classrooms ought to be like. Regarding teachers thought processes, Clark and Peterson (1986, p. 255) suggest that “the thinking, planning, and decision making of teachers constitute a large part of the psychological context of teaching. It is within this context that curriculum is interpreted and acted upon; where teachers teach and students learn.” Gay (1980, p. 57) emphasizes that “teachers do not implement one conception in a pure approach to the exclusion of

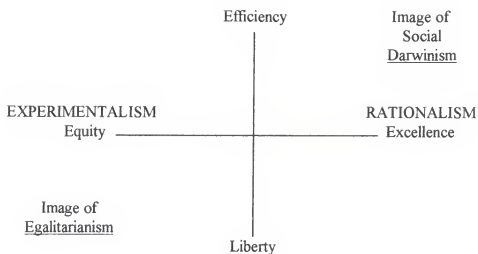


Figure 2. Educational philosophies combined with competing values and images of schooling.

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Sources: Educational philosophy items adapted from "A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy," Curran et al., 1966. Values and images items adapted from "Educational Governance and Administration," Sergiovanni et al., 1987.

others but are more likely to use an eclectic approach and draw bits and pieces from different theoretical models.” Shane and Tabler (1981, p. 11) illustrate how the various conceptions of curriculum relate to one another and or can be utilized in an eclectic approach.

Curriculum orientations are rather wide ranging, have some overlap in them, and are often in conflict. They are characterized by different assumptions regarding goals and purposes of education, selection of content and objectives, characteristics of learners and the learning process, and the nature of knowledge (Saylor et al., 1981). Unruh and Unruh (1984) term the range of orientations a “conceptual maze” and base their discussion on the five orientations of Eisner and Vallance (1974): the development of cognitive processes, curriculum as technology, self-actualization, social reconstruction-relevance, and academic rationalism. In another instance, McNeil (1977) describes a humanistic, social reconstructionist, technological, and academic subject curriculum. Five curriculum “designs” proposed by Saylor (1981) are subject matter/disciplines, specific competencies/technology, human traits/processes, social functions/activities, and individual needs and interests/activities.

Schubert (1986) developed a guest speaker approach in an attempt to illustrate the “problematic state of curriculum knowledge.” A detailed account of each of the three curriculum orientations--intellectual traditionalist, social behaviorist, and experientialist--is presented in Appendix B. Assuming that these differences do exist, a curriculum orientation perspective has been established to combine with the educational philosophies

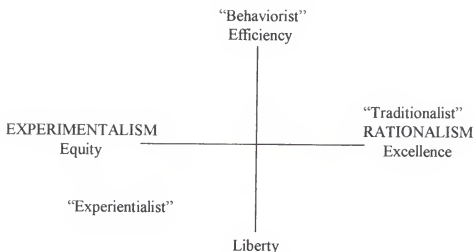


Figure 3. Proposed conceptual model for testing relationships between educational philosophy and orientations to curriculum.

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Sources: Educational philosophy items adapted from "A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy," Curran et al., 1966. Values and images items adapted from "Educational Governance and Administration," Sergiovanni et al., 1987. Curriculum orientation items adapted from "Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Perspective," Schubert, 1986.

expressed by Curran et al. (1966) and the competing values and ideals of Sergiovanni et al. (1987). The conceptual model of this combination is presented in Figure 3.

### Research Questions and Hypotheses

The focus of this research is on the educational philosophy and curriculum improvement preferences of preservice teachers as analyzed by data reported in the instrument, “A Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Improvement Preferences.” The conceptual model will be validated by seeking answers to the following research questions:

A. Are there significant differences in the educational philosophies and curriculum orientations among preservice teachers by area of academic specialization?

B. Are there significant differences in the educational philosophies and curriculum orientations among preservice teachers by area of program of study?

C. Is the difference between educational philosophies and curriculum orientations between academic specializations the same for different programs of study?

The following research hypotheses are derived from the set of relationships between educational philosophy and preferences for curriculum improvements that have been proposed with the conceptual model:

Hypothesis 1A: There is no significant difference in the Experimentalism philosophy of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the research instrument by area of academic specialization.

Hypothesis 1B: There is no significant difference in the Experimentalism philosophy of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the research instrument by area of program of study.

Hypothesis 1C: There is no significant two-way interaction for Experimentalism among levels of academic specializations and programs of study as measured by scores on the research instrument.

Hypothesis 2A: There is no significant difference in the Rationalism philosophy of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the research instrument by area of academic specialization.

Hypothesis 2B: There is no significant difference in the Rationalism philosophy of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the research instrument by area of program of study.

Hypothesis 2C: There is no significant two-way interaction for Rationalism among levels of academic specializations and programs of study as measured by scores on the research instrument.

Hypothesis 3A: There is no significant difference in the Experientialist curriculum orientation of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the research instrument by area of academic specialization.

Hypothesis 3B: There is no significant difference in the Experientialist curriculum orientation of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the research instrument by area of program of study.

Hypothesis 3C: There is no significant two-way interaction for Experientialist curriculum orientation among levels of academic specializations and programs of study as measured by scores on the research instrument.

Hypothesis 4A: There is no significant difference in the Traditionalist curriculum orientation of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the research instrument by area of academic specialization.

Hypothesis 4B: There is no significant difference in the Traditionalist curriculum orientation of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the research instrument by area of program of study.

Hypothesis 4C: There is no significant two-way interaction for Traditionalist curriculum orientation among levels of academic specializations and programs of study as measured by scores on the research instrument.



### CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

The methodology for this study was organized according to the two major purposes of this investigation. These are to test the research hypotheses derived from theoretically expected relationships to validate the conceptual model, and, to determine if relationships exist between educational philosophies, curriculum orientations, and associated variables: academic specialization and program of study.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the plan that will be used to guide the investigation. The main steps will include: the research design, instrumentation, collection of the data, and treatment and analysis of the data.

#### Research Design

The research design selected for use in this study is classified as a cross-sectional , correlational design (Agresti & Finlay, 1997). A self-report questionnaire was utilized to gather information from groups of subjects that were drawn from a predetermined population and the study required a score on each variable for each subject. This type of correlational design can further be classified as “explanatory” since the major purpose is to clarify the understanding of important phenomena through the identification of relationships among variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996).

### Instrumentation

To assess preferences related to educational philosophy and curriculum orientation, a four-part self-report questionnaire was used to measure the variables of interest in this study. This instrument entitled, “A Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences,” begins with a cover sheet that includes instructions and a participant informed consent waiver. The questionnaire is divided into the following sections: Demographic and Experience Information, Images of Curriculum, School Problems and Proposals, and Educational Philosophy Statements. Response time was estimated at 40–60 minutes. The survey instrument is presented in Appendix A.

#### Section I: Demographic and Experience Information

Respondents to the instrument were asked to provide certain information about themselves in the Demographic and Experience Information section of the survey. This section consists of eight items and requires about five minutes for a subject to complete. A description of the respondent group is provided in terms of college class, program of study, academic specialization, gender, and age. Additionally, the respondents were asked to describe previous teaching experience in terms of three activity descriptors; tutoring, coaching, and teaching. These descriptors were intended to assist in characterizing the respondent group and were not requested for purposes of validating the conceptual model. This part of Section I is also designed to prompt students to reflect upon their previous experiences in a teaching role before beginning Sections II–IV of the survey.

## Section II: Images of Curriculum

The second section of the survey is designed to elicit open responses about what preservice teachers deem as the ideal teaching situation. Information was compared to that in Section I to concur the academic specialization and program of study variables for quantitative analysis. Written responses to nine open-ended questions were examined. Examples of the questions include: What grade are you teaching? How many students are in your class? What is the current topic of study?

Further questions ask the respondent to draw a picture and give a detailed account of what they and their students are doing. This part of Section II is designed to prompt students to seriously reflect upon their ideal teaching role before beginning Sections III-IV of the survey. This section requires about 15-20 minutes for a subject to complete.

## Section III: School Problems and Proposals

A questionnaire was developed for use in this study to assess preferences related to curriculum orientation. This instrument, "School Problems and Proposals," contains six topics that are perennial in public schools. According to Schubert (1986, p. 345), "school problems and proposals emerge and recede with social conditions, and they have a way of returning again for those who wait ten years or so in the profession. The labels may change, but many of the problems are perennial." Respondents were requested to rank order given proposals to samples of these recurring problems after examining curriculum orientations from three different perspectives. This section requires about 10-15 minutes for a subject to complete.

#### Section IV: Educational Philosophy Statements

The 24-item "Test of Educational Philosophy" (Curran, Gordon, & Doyle, 1966) was used for assessment of the educational philosophies of the respondents. The response time for this forced-choice questionnaire is estimated at 15-20 minutes. According to Curran et al. (1966) the purpose of the researchers responsible for designing this test was "to develop a short, reliable and valid instrument to measure the ontological, epistemological and axiological dimensions of a teacher's philosophy of education."

The procedure for the developing the test began with a review of a Q-sort instrument called the GNC (Gowan, Newsome, & Chandler, 1961). According to the researchers:

this 100-item instrument was considered easily the most extensive and authoritative source of items and thus the obvious resource with which to begin. Upon item analysis, 40 of these 100 GNC items yielded significant discriminatory power to measure the degree and consistency to which a person's conception of education is experimental or rationalistic in the three areas of ontology, epistemology and axiology. (Curran et al., 1966, p. 385)

Test items that were felt to be "philosophic" were then successively combined with items from the work of Ryans (1961), Kerlinger (1961), Oliver (1953), and a University of Florida faculty committee charged with the development of a list of concepts which were thought to be important for graduates of the college to hold. According to the researchers:

these successive item analyses yielded a final pool of fifty items which had, over the several test administrations with graduate and undergraduate University of Florida classes, maintained statistically significant discriminatory power. The task then shifted to selecting from these fifty items a short schedule of items which would reliably and validly measure groups on the continuum of a conceptual philosophy of education that ranged from most rationalistic to most experimentalistic. (Curran et al., 1966, p. 385)

As a result of final item analysis, twenty-five items were selected as the most usable in a short test that would measure a subject's predisposition to express a philosophy of education that could be termed experimentalism. When subjected to cross-validation analysis, one item fell below the criteria for admissibility and was therefore not recommended for future use.

### Collection of the Data

The basis for this research was to collect empirical evidence about each preservice teacher's educational philosophy and curriculum orientation. The researcher developed a survey instrument to be used for this purpose. The data were collected by distributing a copy of the research instrument, "A Survey of the Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences," to preservice teachers during their introductory education classes. Permission required to administer the instrument was granted by the University of Florida Institutional Review Board, department chairpersons, and the course instructors.

In the spring semester 1997, instructors at selected colleges in central and north central Florida were personally contacted by the researcher regarding participation in the study. Arrangements necessary for participation including distribution and collection of the research instrument and an optional follow-up seminar conducted by the researcher were discussed at this time. Instructors who expressed an interest in participating were then delivered a memo explaining research procedure (Appendix D) and a class set of the research instrument for distribution to each member of the class.

### Follow-Up Procedures

Arrangements for collecting the surveys was made individually with each participating instructor. The researcher collected each set directly from the instructor or in an agreed upon location such as an instructor's department office. The date and time for a follow-up seminar was confirmed during this exchange.

### Response Rate

To insure an adequate sample size and diversity, fourteen course instructors at eight different college campuses were personally contacted by the researcher. Each instructor agreed to review correspondence explaining the study and participant requirements (Appendix D). After reviewing the correspondence twelve of the fourteen instructors agreed to participate. One instructor suggested including four different classes in the study raising the total number of groups to fifteen. Of the potential 331 preservice registered in these classes, 298 completed and returned the survey to their instructor. Instructors cited absenteeism as the greatest contributing factor to the incomplete rate of return. Of the 298 completed surveys, 34 could not be analyzed because they lacked sufficient demographic data or were incorrectly completed, such as checking only one response or multiple coding using the same rank. The 264 valid responses represent a return rate of 79.76% of the research sample. Table 1 reports the population that returned valid responses.

TABLE 1  
Participating Research Sample

| Pre-Service Teachers | Elementary<br>(K - 5th) | Middle<br>(6th - 8th) | Secondary*<br>(9th and above) | Total           |
|----------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|
| English**            | 76                      | 6                     | 27                            | 109<br>(41.29%) |
| Mathematics          | 33                      | 5                     | 11                            | 49<br>(18.56%)  |
| Social Science       | 11                      | 10                    | 17                            | 38<br>(14.39%)  |
| Science              | 16                      | 4                     | 13                            | 33<br>(12.50%)  |
| Special Education    | 25                      | 3                     | 7                             | 35<br>(13.26%)  |
| Total                | 161<br>60.98%           | 28<br>10.61%          | 75<br>28.41%                  | 264             |

\* Secondary - includes post-secondary

\*\* English - includes language arts, foreign languages, children's literature, and reading

As indicated, the largest segment of the respondent group consists of preservice teachers preparing for careers at the elementary level. An elementary program of study was indicated by 161 of the 264 respondents, representing 60.98% of the sample group. Further, elementary-level preservice teachers who chose the academic specialization “English” represent 28.78% of the sample group. In contrast, the smallest groups represented preservice teachers who were preparing to teach at the middle level. The profiles depicted in the respondent group are not unlike those in the larger universe of prospective teachers nationwide.

### Treatment and Analysis of the Data

Participating preservice teachers were given directions in Section I of the instrument to answer questions regarding demographics and teaching experience. Of particular interest to the researcher were the variables academic specialization and program of study. These variables were statistically analyzed in terms of frequencies, means and standard deviations.

The qualitative data taken from Section II of the research instrument are used as an adjunct to the quantitative analysis described above. Participants were given directions to imagine and describe their classroom, their students, and themselves after several years of teaching. They were to think of themselves as an experienced teacher; “close to the teacher they want to be.” Subjects’ responses were examined comparatively to those in Section I in order to verify the categories of variables regarding academic specialization and program of study.



Participants were given directions in Section III to rank order the responses to each "School Problem and Proposal." Rank ordering was to be accomplished as follows:

- 1 that response which is MOST reflective of your position.
- 2 that response which is SOMEWHAT reflective of your position.
- 3 that response which is LEAST reflective of your position.

Since respondents were asked in Section III to rank order their responses, these data may be classified as ordinal data; objects that stand in relationship to each other as greater than or less than.

Participants were given directions in Section IV to make a forced choice to each Education Philosophy Statement. The ratings were accomplished as follows:

- A that response that STRONGLY AGREES with the statement.
- B that response that AGREES with the statement.
- C that response that has NO OPINION or DOES NOT APPLY.
- D that response that DISAGREES with the statement.
- E that response that STRONGLY DISAGREES with the statement.

The data from each section of the survey, Academic Specialization, Program of Study, Curriculum Orientation, and Educational Philosophy, were transferred into data processing codes for input to the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). The SAS program was used for statistical treatment of the data. Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed as well as chi-squares for each response to test the proposed relationships. The purpose of this analyses is to determine whether any of the groups differ significantly from any other group.

## CHAPTER IV PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was to determine through a researcher developed instrument whether responses of selected preservice teachers could be shown to be consistent with a given educational philosophy or curriculum orientation. A conceptual model was constructed to display possible relationships between these responses. Specifically, answers to the following questions were sought:

- A) Are there significant differences in the educational philosophies and curriculum orientations among preservice teachers by area of academic specialization?
- B) Are there significant differences in the educational philosophies and curriculum orientations among preservice teachers by area of program of study?
- C) Is the difference between educational philosophies and curriculum orientations between academic specializations the same for different programs of study?

Answers to these questions are reported in this chapter. Following a description of the research sample, the statistical analysis is organized into two sections. The first of these includes results of analyses according to procedures identified within research questions and hypotheses. The second contains analysis of individual responses for each dependent variable, academic specialization and program of study.

### Description of the Research Sample

Studies of occupational socialization (e.g., Lortie, 1975; Bucher & Stelling, 1977) have found that the professional ideas that guide subsequent behavior are often formed early in one's career. Educational researchers (e.g., Adler, 1984; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Goodman & Adler, 1985) have examined the teaching perspectives students develop during their professional preparation. Goodman (1988) contends that it follows, then, that a crucial period for examining the development of a teachers' practical philosophy of teaching is during their preservice education.

### Description of the Respondent Group

As indicated previously, 264 of the 331 sample members comprised the respondent group, yielding a response rate of 79.76%. Given the less than full response, the descriptions that follow are attributed to the respondent group rather than to the sample of preservice teachers.

Demographic variables. Description of the respondent group is provided here in terms of current class, program of study, academic specialization, gender, and educational psychology. Summary data on these variables are provided in Table 2.

Most participants selected for this study, though accustomed to assuming informal teaching responsibilities, were at the introductory stage of a formal teacher education program. For example, only 15.53% of the respondents had taken an educational psychology course. Slightly over three-fourths were in their sophomore, junior, or senior years while others were fairly evenly distributed as freshmen or graduate students. Slightly over three-fourths of the 264 respondents were female.

TABLE 2  
Frequency Distribution on Selected Demographic Information Variables

| Variable                | Level                    | Frequency | %     |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|-------|
| Current Class           | - Freshman               | 24        | 9.09  |
|                         | - Sophomore              | 76        | 28.79 |
|                         | - Junior                 | 61        | 23.11 |
|                         | - Senior                 | 70        | 26.52 |
|                         | - Graduate Student       | 20        | 7.58  |
|                         | - Other                  | 13        | 4.92  |
| Program of Study        | - Early Childhood        | 17        | 6.44  |
|                         | - Elementary             | 126       | 47.73 |
|                         | - Middle Level Education | 28        | 10.61 |
|                         | - Secondary Education    | 36        | 13.64 |
|                         | - Masters Certification  | 13        | 4.92  |
|                         | - Other / No Response    | 44        | 16.67 |
| Academic Specialization | - English                | 109       | 41.29 |
|                         | - Mathematics            | 49        | 18.56 |
|                         | - Social Science         | 38        | 14.39 |
|                         | - Science                | 33        | 12.50 |
|                         | - Other / No Response*   | 35        | 13.26 |
| Gender                  | - Female                 | 202       | 76.52 |
|                         | - Male                   | 62        | 23.48 |
| Educational Psychology  | - Yes                    | 41        | 15.53 |
|                         | - No                     | 223       | 84.47 |

\* Other = Of the original 57 who responded "Other" 35 specified Special Education and were included in the study as presented in Table 1. The remaining 23 were discounted as non-categorical.

Most respondents listed multiple teaching experiences. Over half, 57.20% of the respondent group, indicated that they had been a tutor, 22.73% a coach, and 40.91% indicated formal classroom teaching experience. About one of every four respondents listed “other” experiences such as counseling, baby-sitting, and scouting. Most “other” teaching experiences took place in church classrooms, in the military, the YMCA, or at home. About one of every six, 16.67% of the respondent group, gave no indication of tutoring, coaching, or teaching experience. Summary data of teaching experiences are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3  
Frequency Distribution for Teaching Experience

| Experience Descriptor | Frequency of Responses | Percentage of Responses | Percentage of Respondent Group |
|-----------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Tutoring              | 151                    | 35.36                   | 57.20                          |
| Coaching              | 60                     | 14.05                   | 22.73                          |
| Teaching              | 108                    | 25.29                   | 40.91                          |
| Other                 | 64                     | 14.99                   | 24.24                          |
| No Response           | 44                     | 10.30                   | 16.67                          |
| TOTAL                 | 427 <sup>a</sup>       | 99.99                   |                                |

n = 264

<sup>a</sup> Respondents could indicate multiple teaching experiences.

Educational philosophy variables. Characterization of the respondent group regarding educational philosophy is presented here according to the two dimensions delineated prior to data collection. A comprehensive description of each educational philosophy, Experimentalism and Rationalism, is presented in Appendix B. A comparison of the hypothesized dichotomous relationship, presented in Figure 3, is discussed here and statistically analyzed in the sections that follow.

Participants were given directions to make a forced choice to each of twenty-four educational philosophy statements. The ratings were accomplished as follows:

- A that response that STRONGLY AGREES with the statement.
- B that response that AGREES with the statement.
- C that response that has NO OPINION or DOES NOT APPLY.
- D that response that DISAGREES with the statement.
- E that response that STRONGLY DISAGREES with the statement.

The respondent group generally agreed or strongly agreed with the statements, marking either B or A, 64% of the time. Selected questions producing atypical responses were of interest to the researcher and are discussed here. Summary data of the frequency distribution of responses are presented in Table 4.

If data are compared on a statement-by-statement basis, respondents often appeared to contradict themselves. For example, a notable majority, 86% of the group, agreed or strongly agreed with statement 15, which represented the educational philosophy of Experimentalism. The statement read: "Existing knowledge is tentative and is subject to revision in the light of new facts." Conversely, only 30% of the group agreed or strongly agreed with statement 23, which also reflected Experimentalism. The statement read: "There is no reality beyond that knowable through human experience."

TABLE 4  
Frequency Distribution of Responses  
By Educational Philosophy Statements

| Statement | A   |       | B   |       | C  |       | D  |       | E  |       |
|-----------|-----|-------|-----|-------|----|-------|----|-------|----|-------|
|           | f   | %     | f   | %     | f  | %     | f  | %     | f  | %     |
| 1.        | 39  | 14.77 | 137 | 51.89 | 33 | 12.50 | 49 | 18.56 | 6  | 2.27  |
| 2.        | 85  | 32.20 | 139 | 52.65 | 15 | 5.68  | 21 | 7.95  | 4  | 1.52  |
| 3.        | 86  | 32.58 | 111 | 42.05 | 33 | 12.50 | 32 | 12.12 | 2  | 0.76  |
| 4.        | 36  | 13.64 | 124 | 46.97 | 36 | 13.69 | 61 | 23.11 | 7  | 2.65  |
| 5.        | 31  | 11.74 | 99  | 37.50 | 63 | 23.86 | 62 | 23.48 | 9  | 3.41  |
| 6.        | 14  | 5.30  | 86  | 32.58 | 53 | 20.08 | 91 | 34.47 | 20 | 7.58  |
| 7.        | 65  | 24.62 | 109 | 41.29 | 15 | 5.68  | 50 | 18.94 | 25 | 9.47  |
| 8.        | 34  | 12.88 | 107 | 40.53 | 48 | 18.18 | 51 | 19.32 | 24 | 9.09  |
| 9.        | 19  | 7.20  | 103 | 39.02 | 56 | 21.21 | 65 | 24.62 | 21 | 7.95  |
| 10.       | 67  | 25.38 | 133 | 50.39 | 29 | 10.98 | 32 | 12.12 | 3  | 1.14  |
| 11.       | 44  | 16.67 | 110 | 41.67 | 29 | 10.98 | 71 | 26.89 | 10 | 3.79  |
| 12.       | 32  | 12.12 | 120 | 45.45 | 76 | 28.79 | 31 | 11.74 | 5  | 1.89  |
| 13.       | 39  | 14.02 | 102 | 38.64 | 33 | 12.50 | 73 | 27.65 | 19 | 7.20  |
| 14.       | 79  | 29.92 | 129 | 48.86 | 23 | 8.71  | 26 | 9.85  | 7  | 2.65  |
| 15.       | 104 | 39.39 | 124 | 46.97 | 27 | 10.23 | 9  | 3.41  | 0  | 0.00  |
| 16.       | 102 | 38.64 | 130 | 49.24 | 24 | 7.58  | 9  | 3.41  | 3  | 1.14  |
| 17.       | 38  | 14.39 | 142 | 53.79 | 46 | 17.42 | 36 | 13.64 | 2  | 0.76  |
| 18.       | 70  | 26.52 | 113 | 42.80 | 23 | 8.71  | 46 | 17.42 | 12 | 4.55  |
| 19.       | 58  | 21.97 | 118 | 44.70 | 40 | 15.15 | 47 | 17.80 | 1  | 0.38  |
| 20.       | 15  | 5.68  | 110 | 41.67 | 68 | 25.76 | 67 | 25.38 | 4  | 1.52  |
| 21.       | 69  | 26.14 | 108 | 40.91 | 28 | 10.61 | 42 | 15.91 | 17 | 6.44  |
| 22.       | 44  | 16.67 | 140 | 53.03 | 25 | 9.47  | 50 | 18.94 | 5  | 1.89  |
| 23.       | 34  | 12.88 | 46  | 17.42 | 70 | 26.52 | 75 | 28.41 | 39 | 14.77 |
| 24.       | 71  | 26.89 | 141 | 53.41 | 17 | 6.44  | 26 | 9.85  | 9  | 3.41  |

Similarly, 87% of the group, agreed or strongly agreed with statement 16, which represented an educational philosophy of Rationalism. This statement read, “A knowledge of history is worthwhile in itself because it embraces the accumulated wisdom of our ancestors.” However, only 38% of the group agreed or strongly agreed with statement 6, which also reflected Rationalism. The statement read: “In the interest of social stability, the youth of this generation must be brought into conformity with the beliefs and institutions of our national heritage.”

Curriculum orientation preference variables. Characterization of the respondent group regarding curriculum orientation preferences is presented here according to the three dimensions delineated prior to data collection. A comprehensive description of each curriculum orientation, Experientialist, Social Behaviorist, and Intellectual Traditionalist, is presented in Appendix B. A comparison of the hypothesized dichotomous relationship between two of the three curriculum orientations, Experientialist and Intellectual Traditionalist, presented in the conceptual model in Figure 3, is discussed here and statistically analyzed in the sections that follow.

Six forced-choice proposals related to problems facing curriculum were used to assess preservice teachers’ orientations to curriculum. If data are compared on an item-by-item basis respondents appeared to contradict themselves. For example, when faced with the problems of student apathy, individual differences, teaching the basics, and drug abuse education, respondents chose the proposal reflective of the Experientialist curriculum orientation over that of the Intellectual Traditionalist. Conversely, when faced with the problems of discipline and the utilization of standardized test scores, respondents



demonstrated a preference for the proposal reflective of the Intellectual Traditionalist. Each proposal, in the order it appeared on the research instrument, is discussed in this section. Summary data of responses are presented in Table 5.

Regarding student apathy a clear majority, 51% of the group, indicated a preference for the Experientialist view that stated:

“When teachers show students that they can achieve more meaning and direction in their lives by participating in school, there will be much less apathy and attendance problems.”

A minority, 26% of the group, preferred the traditionalist proposal for preventing student apathy. In this view, the teachers’ role is to convey that within their discipline lies insight into the great events and mysteries of life. Further, the proposal stated that students will feel a fulfillment and joy that does much to prevent apathy.

The Traditionalist orientation was preferred in two of the six categories of problems facing schools. The widest margin of preference of the Traditionalist view over that of the Experientialist regarded the problem of maintaining classroom discipline. The Traditionalist orientation, preferred by 40% of the group, stated:

“Students must first be made to pay attention. If students listen to teachers who know and love their subject, they will soon realize the great personal enrichment that an education offers. At that point discipline will switch from required to self-initiated.”

Only 28% of the group indicated that it is only when students see knowledge as irrelevant that discipline problems occur. This Experientialist view also states that the teacher’s

TABLE 5  
Frequency Distribution of Responses  
By Curriculum Orientation

| Problem                  | Experientialist |       | Social Behaviorist |       | Traditionalist |       |
|--------------------------|-----------------|-------|--------------------|-------|----------------|-------|
|                          | f               | %     | f                  | %     | f              | %     |
| Apathy                   | 135             | 51.14 | 58                 | 21.97 | 71             | 26.89 |
| Discipline               | 74              | 28.03 | 84                 | 31.82 | 106            | 40.15 |
| Individual Differences   | 148             | 56.06 | 87                 | 32.95 | 29             | 10.98 |
| Basics                   | 127             | 48.11 | 92                 | 34.85 | 45             | 17.05 |
| Drug Abuse Education     | 142             | 53.79 | 78                 | 29.55 | 44             | 16.67 |
| Standardized Test Scores | 111             | 42.05 | 21                 | 7.95  | 132            | 50.00 |

central job is to get to know students well enough to enable them to discover knowledge that helps to meet their needs. The rejection of this Experientialist view contrasts with the following preference regarding individual differences.

The most notable majority, 56% of the group, indicated that careful attention to the needs and interests of students is needed when facing the problem of individual differences. This view, representative of the Experientialist curriculum orientation, also states that if students are treated alike, their differences become exaggerated. The traditionalist view that individual differences are exaggerated today in education was preferred by only 11% of the respondents.

The essence of teaching the “basics” was characterized very differently in each orientation. The Experientialist view that the skills important to leading a good life are related to human relations was preferred by 48% of the respondent group. This view supports curricula emphasizing skill building in communication, needs identification, and problem solving. The least preferred orientation was that of the Traditionalist. This view, preferred by only 17% of the group, required a student relationship “with a great teacher who deeply understands their discipline.” The basic skills defined as reading, writing, and arithmetic, represented the Behaviorist orientation. Although preferred less than the Experientialist orientation, a notable 35% of the group agreed that these skills “are needed for participation in society and are the building blocks of communication and cognitive performance.”

When confronted with the societal problem of drug abuse education, a clear majority, 53% of the group, preferred the Experientialist view that stated:

“If students are involved with drugs, have questions about them, or just want to talk about the peer pressure associated with them, schools should provide opportunity to pursue this interest.”

The Traditionalist view stated that to a large extent, schools are trying to provide courses to combat every serious social problem. Only 16% of the group agreed that consequently curricula are becoming increasingly watered-down due to attention placed on solving social problems.

The Traditionalist orientation was slightly preferred by respondents faced with the problem of using standardized test scores. This view, chosen by 50% of the group, stated:

“Standardized aptitude tests can be of some use in determining who has a propensity to study an area, however teachers should have the primary responsibility for assessment of student progress.”

The Experientialist view, preferred by 42% of the group stated:

“Students devalue other aspects of their unique, and are treated as labels instead of unique individuals when standardized test scores are used as the prime measure of productivity.”

The proposal preferred least on the entire orientation exercise was the Behaviorist view in this category. Using standardized test scores as an objective measure of “educational production” was chosen by only 8% of the respondent group.

### Statistical Analyses of the Research Questions

This section reports the data that are pertinent to accepting or failing to accept the null hypotheses developed to test the problem statements. The data are represented by cell frequency, means, and standard deviations for each of the four dependent variables as a function of academic specialization and program of study.

#### Experimentalism

The first dependent variable analyzed was the educational philosophy of Experimentalism. For Experimentalism an F-value of 1.01 with a probability of .45 was computed for the overall model. These results indicate that the three sources of variation, academic specialization, program of study, and interaction of preservice teachers, do not explain a significant portion of variability on the Experimentalism scale.

Table 6 reports the cell frequencies, unweighted cell means, and standard deviations of the eight Experimentalism responses in the survey instrument. The higher the score (maximum 16) the more reflective those responses appeared to be of the preservice teacher's philosophy. Conversely, the lower the score (minimum -16) the less likely the responses appeared to reflect the position of the preservice teacher. The sample sizes, which are consistent throughout the study, ranged from a low of 3 for special education preservice teachers at the middle level to a high of 76 for English preservice teachers at the elementary level.

Hypothesis 1A. There is no significant difference in the Experimentalism philosophy of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences by area of academic specialization.

TABLE 6  
Frequency, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Experimentalism  
As a Function of Academic Specialization and Program of Study

|                      |     | ELEMENTARY | MIDDLE | SECONDARY |          |
|----------------------|-----|------------|--------|-----------|----------|
| ENGLISH              | (a) | 76.00      | 6.00   | 27.00     | (d) 3.21 |
|                      | (b) | 4.16       | 2.00   | 3.48      |          |
|                      | (c) | 4.38       | 2.00   | 3.39      |          |
| MATH                 |     | 33.00      | 5.00   | 11.00     | 4.81     |
|                      |     | 4.79       | 3.20   | 6.45      |          |
|                      |     | 4.57       | 4.66   | 4.66      |          |
| SOCIAL<br>SCIENCE    |     | 11.00      | 10.00  | 17.00     | 4.51     |
|                      |     | 4.54       | 3.00   | 6.00      |          |
|                      |     | 2.88       | 5.19   | 3.87      |          |
| SCIENCE              |     | 16.00      | 4.00   | 13.00     | 3.10     |
|                      |     | 3.94       | 1.50   | 3.85      |          |
|                      |     | 3.34       | 3.00   | 5.37      |          |
| SPECIAL<br>EDUCATION |     | 25.00      | 3.00   | 7.00      | 3.98     |
|                      |     | 4.80       | 3.00   | 4.14      |          |
|                      |     | 4.13       | 2.65   | 5.34      |          |
|                      | (d) | 4.45       | 2.54   | 4.78      |          |

(a) = Frequency, (b) = Mean, (c) = Standard Deviation, (d) = Cumulative Average

For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 1.04. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .39. Since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

Hypothesis 1B. There is no significant difference in the Experimentalism philosophy of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences by area of program of study. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 2.31. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .10. Although this value approaches the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

Hypothesis 1C. There is no significant two-way interaction for Experimentalism among levels of academic specializations and programs of study as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at .34. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .95. Since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

#### Rationalism

The second dependent variable analyzed was the educational philosophy of Rationalism. For Rationalism an F-value of .89 with a probability of .59 was computed for the overall model. These results indicate that the three sources of variation, academic specialization, program of study, and interaction of preservice teachers and control do not explain a significant portion of variability on the Rationalism scale.

Table 7 reports the cell frequencies, unweighted cell means, and standard deviations of the sixteen Rationalism responses in the survey instrument. The higher the score (maximum 32) the more reflective those responses appeared to be of the preservice teacher's philosophy. Conversely, the lower the score (minimum -32) the less likely the responses appeared to reflect the position of the preservice teacher. The sample sizes, which are consistent throughout the study, ranged from a low of 3 for special education preservice teachers at the middle level to a high of 76 for English preservice teachers at the elementary level.

Hypothesis 2A. There is no significant difference in the Rationalism philosophy of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences by area of academic specialization. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 1.83. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .12. Since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

Hypothesis 2B. There is no significant difference in the Rationalism philosophy of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences by area of program of study. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at .21. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .81. Since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

Hypothesis 2C. There is no significant two-way interaction for Rationalism among the levels of academic specializations and programs of study as measured by scores on the



TABLE 7  
Frequency, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Rationalism  
As a Function of Academic Specialization and Program of Study

|                      |     | ELEMENTARY | MIDDLE | SECONDARY |          |
|----------------------|-----|------------|--------|-----------|----------|
| ENGLISH              | (a) | 76.00      | 6.00   | 27.00     |          |
|                      | (b) | 9.19       | 6.50   | 10.59     | (d) 8.76 |
|                      | (c) | 8.43       | 7.06   | 8.87      |          |
| MATH                 |     | 33.00      | 5.00   | 11.00     |          |
|                      |     | 11.78      | 17.20  | 10.91     | 13.30    |
|                      |     | 7.04       | 6.14   | 6.66      |          |
| SOCIAL<br>SCIENCE    |     | 11.00      | 10.00  | 17.00     |          |
|                      |     | 7.27       | 10.60  | 8.00      | 8.62     |
|                      |     | 7.84       | 10.30  | 10.13     |          |
| SCIENCE              |     | 16.00      | 4.00   | 13.00     |          |
|                      |     | 9.94       | 3.50   | 10.69     | 8.04     |
|                      |     | 7.35       | 12.66  | 8.37      |          |
| SPECIAL<br>EDUCATION |     | 25.00      | 3.00   | 7.00      |          |
|                      |     | 10.36      | 13.33  | 9.86      | 11.18    |
|                      |     | 8.97       | 5.69   | 5.79      |          |
|                      | (d) | 9.71       | 10.23  | 10.01     |          |

(a) = Frequency, (b) = Mean, (c) = Standard Deviation, (d) = Cumulative Average

Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at .71. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .68. Since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

### Experientialist

The third dependent variable analyzed was the Experientialist curriculum orientation. For the Experientialist orientation an F-value of 1.74 with a probability of .04 was computed for the overall model. These results indicate that one or more of the three sources of variation, academic specialization, program of study, and interaction of preservice teachers and control do explain a significant portion of variability on the Experientialist scale.

Table 8 reports the cell frequencies, unweighted cell means, and standard deviations of the six Experientialist responses in the survey instrument. The lower the score (minimum 6) the more reflective those responses appeared to be of the preservice teacher's philosophy. Conversely, the higher the score (maximum 18) the less likely the responses appeared to reflect the position of the preservice teacher. The sample sizes, which are consistent throughout the study, ranged from a low of 3 for special education preservice teachers at the middle level to a high of 76 for English preservice teachers at the elementary level.

Hypothesis 3A. There is no significant difference in the Experientialist curriculum orientation of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences by area of academic specialization.

TABLE 8  
Frequency, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Experientialist Orientation  
As a Function of Academic Specialization and Program of Study

|                      |     | ELEMENTARY | MIDDLE | SECONDARY |           |
|----------------------|-----|------------|--------|-----------|-----------|
| ENGLISH              | (a) | 76.00      | 6.00   | 27.00     | (d) 10.96 |
|                      | (b) | 10.14      | 12.16  | 10.59     |           |
|                      | (c) | 1.87       | 2.04   | 2.29      |           |
| MATH                 |     | 33.00      | 5.00   | 11.00     | 9.92      |
|                      |     | 10.09      | 9.40   | 10.27     |           |
|                      |     | 2.04       | 2.07   | 1.79      |           |
| SOCIAL<br>SCIENCE    |     | 11.00      | 10.00  | 17.00     | 10.63     |
|                      |     | 9.64       | 11.20  | 11.06     |           |
|                      |     | 2.01       | 2.10   | 2.05      |           |
| SCIENCE              |     | 16.00      | 4.00   | 13.00     | 10.99     |
|                      |     | 9.50       | 12.00  | 11.46     |           |
|                      |     | 1.26       | 2.45   | 2.11      |           |
| SPECIAL<br>EDUCATION |     | 25.00      | 3.00   | 7.00      | 10.99     |
|                      |     | 10.08      | 12.33  | 10.57     |           |
|                      |     | 2.14       | 1.53   | 1.62      |           |
|                      | (d) | 9.89       | 11.42  | 10.79     |           |

(a) = Frequency, (b) = Mean, (c) = Standard Deviation, (d) = Cumulative Average

For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 1.48. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .21. Since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

Hypothesis 3B. There is no significant difference in the Experientialist curriculum orientation of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences by area of program of study. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 6.33. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .01. Since the probability is less than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should be rejected.

Hypothesis 3C. There is no significant two-way interaction for Experientialist curriculum orientation among levels of academic specializations and programs of study as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 1.31. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .24. since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

#### Traditionalist

The fourth dependent variable analyzed was the Traditionalist curriculum orientation. For the Traditionalist orientation an F-value of 1.94 with a probability of .02 was computed for the overall model. These results indicate that one or more of the three sources of variation, academic specialization, program of study, and interaction of

preservice teachers and control do explain a significant portion of variability on the Traditionalist scale.

Table 9 reports the cell frequencies, unweighted cell means, and standard deviations of the six Traditionalist responses in the survey instrument. The lower the score (minimum 6) the more reflective those responses appeared to be of the preservice teacher's philosophy. Conversely, the higher the score (maximum 18) the less likely the responses appeared to reflect the position of the preservice teacher. The sample sizes, which are consistent throughout the study, ranged from a low of 3 for special education preservice teachers at the middle level to a high of 76 for English preservice teachers at the elementary level.

Hypothesis 4A. There is no significant difference in the Traditionalist curriculum orientation of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences by area of academic specialization. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 1.19. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .31. Since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

Hypothesis 4B. There is no significant difference in the Traditionalist curriculum orientation of preservice teachers as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences by area of program of study. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 3.34. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .04. Since the probability is less than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should be rejected.

TABLE 9  
Frequency, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Traditionalist Orientation  
As a Function of Academic Specialization and Program of Study

|                      |     | ELEMENTARY | MIDDLE | SECONDARY |           |
|----------------------|-----|------------|--------|-----------|-----------|
| ENGLISH              | (a) | 76.00      | 6.00   | 27.00     | (d) 12.49 |
|                      | (b) | 13.12      | 11.50  | 12.85     |           |
|                      | (c) | 2.08       | 2.26   | 2.25      |           |
| MATH                 |     | 33.00      | 5.00   | 11.00     | 13.44     |
|                      |     | 13.15      | 14.00  | 13.18     |           |
|                      |     | 1.64       | 1.41   | 1.40      |           |
| SOCIAL<br>SCIENCE    |     | 11.00      | 10.00  | 17.00     | 12.38     |
|                      |     | 12.45      | 12.50  | 12.18     |           |
|                      |     | 2.81       | 2.12   | 2.32      |           |
| SCIENCE              |     | 16.00      | 4.00   | 13.00     | 12.54     |
|                      |     | 14.19      | 10.75  | 12.69     |           |
|                      |     | 1.76       | 2.99   | 2.18      |           |
| SPECIAL<br>EDUCATION |     | 25.00      | 3.00   | 7.00      | 12.71     |
|                      |     | 13.36      | 11.33  | 13.43     |           |
|                      |     | 1.91       | 2.08   | 1.40      |           |
|                      | (d) | 13.25      | 12.02  | 12.87     |           |

(a) = Frequency, (b) = Mean, (c) = Standard Deviation, (d) = Cumulative Average

Hypothesis 4C. There is no significant two-way interaction for Traditionalist curriculum orientation among levels of academic specializations and programs of study as measured by scores on the Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences. For this hypothesis the F-value was computed at 1.51. The probability of obtaining a computed F-value this size is .15. Since the probability is greater than the .05 level chosen for statistical significance, the results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

Summary of the data using the computed probability and F-value is presented in Table 10. Analysis of the data enables rejection of two of the null hypotheses. Hypothesis 3B and Hypothesis 4B both concern the independent variable program of study. Hypothesis 3B relates with the Experientialist responses indicating a probability coefficient of .01. Hypothesis 4B relates with Traditionalist responses indicating a probability coefficient of .04. Thus, analysis reveals two relationships between curriculum orientation and program type that are greater than chance. Further, the analysis of variance for the dependent variables indicated that there was no significant two-way interaction among levels of types of academic specialization and program of study.

#### Individual Item Responses

The researcher was further interested in knowing if individual item responses in each group of dependent variables could be shown to be significant at the .05 level or if they were canceled by non-effective items in the Means Analysis. To answer these

TABLE 10  
Computed Probability F-Value of Dependent Variable Responses  
As a Function of Specified Independent Variables

| Dependent Variable |                 |         | <u>p &lt; .05</u> | <u>F-Value</u> |
|--------------------|-----------------|---------|-------------------|----------------|
| 1                  | EXPERIMENTALISM | Overall | 1.01              | .45            |
|                    |                 | (A)     | 1.04              | .39            |
|                    |                 | (B)     | 2.31              | .10            |
|                    |                 | (C)     | .34               | .95            |
|                    |                 |         |                   |                |
| 2                  | RATIONALISM     | Overall | .89               | .59            |
|                    |                 | (A)     | 1.83              | .12            |
|                    |                 | (B)     | .21               | .81            |
|                    |                 | (C)     | .71               | .68            |
|                    |                 |         |                   |                |
| 3                  | EXPERIENTIALIST | Overall | 1.74              | .04*           |
|                    |                 | (A)     | 1.48              | .21            |
|                    |                 | (B)     | 6.33              | .01*           |
|                    |                 | (C)     | 1.31              | .24            |
|                    |                 |         |                   |                |
| 4                  | TRADITIONALIST  | Overall | 1.94              | .02*           |
|                    |                 | (A)     | 1.19              | .31            |
|                    |                 | (B)     | 3.34              | .04*           |
|                    |                 | (C)     | 1.51              | .15            |
|                    |                 |         |                   |                |

\* Indicates comparison significant at the .05 level.

(A) = By Type of Academic Specialization

(B) = By Type of Program of Study

(C) = Two-way Interaction Among the Levels of Types



questions an item analysis using chi-square by academic specialization by program of study was conducted. The chi-square and probability coefficient for each response in the dependent variable set are reported in Tables 11, 12, 13, and 14.

Table 11 reports the eight responses in the research instrument that measured the educational philosophy of Experimentalism. Of the eight responses as a function of the independent variable academic specialization, no responses yielded chi-squares that had a probability level that met the criteria for statistical significance. Analysis of one Experimentalism response by program of study (15) yielded a chi-square of 12.06 and a probability coefficient of .06 indicating that a relationship would exist at a slightly higher significance level.

Table 12 reports the 16 responses in the research instrument that measured the educational philosophy of Rationalism. Of the sixteen responses as a function of the independent variable academic specialization, three responses (6, 11, and 16) yielded chi-squares of 39.37, 29.85, and 26.14 and probability coefficients of .01, .02, and .05 respectively, indicating that a relationship existed. Analysis of four Rationalism responses by program of study (4, 6, 8, and 22) yielded chi-squares of 19.72, 16.29, 21.34, and 16.03, and probability coefficients of .01, .04, .01, and .04 respectively, indicating that a relationship existed.

Table 13 reports the six responses that were developed to measure the Experientialist curriculum orientation. Of the six responses as a function of the

TABLE 11  
 Chi-Square and Probability for Experimentalism Response Items  
 By Academic Specialization By Program of Study

| Responses | By Academic Specialization |     | By Program of Study |     |
|-----------|----------------------------|-----|---------------------|-----|
|           | Chi-Square                 | P x | Chi-Square          | P x |
| 3         | 13.47                      | .64 | 5.95                | .65 |
| 5         | 20.41                      | .20 | 10.49               | .23 |
| 9         | 15.66                      | .48 | 8.35                | .40 |
| 10        | 17.65                      | .35 | 11.88               | .16 |
| 13        | 20.71                      | .19 | 13.78               | .09 |
| 15        | 9.84                       | .63 | 12.06               | .06 |
| 21        | 15.37                      | .50 | 8.21                | .41 |
| 23        | 19.52                      | .24 | 9.99                | .27 |

p < .05

TABLE 12  
Chi-Square and Probability for Rationalism Response Items  
By Academic Specialization By Program of Study

| Responses | By Academic Specialization |      | By Program of Study |      |
|-----------|----------------------------|------|---------------------|------|
|           | Chi-Square                 | P x  | Chi-Square          | P x  |
| 1         | 22.23                      | .14  | 3.90                | .87  |
| 2         | 15.10                      | .51  | 3.85                | .87  |
| 4         | 15.47                      | .49  | 19.72               | .01* |
| 6         | 39.37                      | .01* | 16.29               | .04* |
| 7         | 16.62                      | .41  | 6.16                | .63  |
| 8         | 13.79                      | .61  | 21.34               | .01* |
| 11        | 29.85                      | .02* | 6.57                | .58  |
| 12        | 13.92                      | .61  | 10.44               | .24  |
| 14        | 18.15                      | .58  | 5.01                | .89  |
| 16        | 26.14                      | .05* | 7.42                | .49  |
| 17        | 11.91                      | .75  | 7.68                | .47  |
| 18        | 16.18                      | .44  | 5.01                | .76  |
| 19        | 22.97                      | .12  | 11.54               | .17  |
| 20        | 15.69                      | .48  | 4.04                | .85  |
| 22        | 10.96                      | .81  | 16.03               | .04* |
| 24        | 16.62                      | .41  | 2.84                | .94  |

$p < .05$

\* Indicates comparison significant at the .05 level

TABLE 13  
Chi-Square and Probability for Experientialist Response Items  
By Academic Specialization By Program of Study

| Responses                     | By Academic Specialization |     | By Program of Study |      |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|-----|---------------------|------|
|                               | Chi-Square                 | P x | Chi-Square          | P x  |
| 1<br>(Student Apathy)         | 11.09                      | .20 | 1.31                | .86  |
| 2<br>(Student Discipline)     | 7.43                       | .49 | 9.25                | .06  |
| 3<br>(Individual Differences) | 6.33                       | .61 | 8.18                | .09  |
| 4<br>(Teaching Basics)        | 8.81                       | .36 | 7.14                | .13  |
| 5<br>(Drug Abuse Education)   | 8.17                       | .42 | 5.00                | .29  |
| 6<br>(Standardized Testing)   | 5.35                       | .72 | 11.91               | .02* |

$p < .05$

\* Indicates comparison significant at the .05 level

TABLE 14  
Chi-Square and Probability for Traditionalist Response Items  
By Academic Specialization By Program of Study

| Responses                     | By Academic Specialization |     | By Program of Study |      |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|-----|---------------------|------|
|                               | Chi-Square                 | P x | Chi-Square          | P x  |
| 1<br>(Student Apathy)         | 14.13                      | .08 | 0.65                | .96  |
| 2<br>(Student Discipline)     | 13.80                      | .09 | 12.27               | .02* |
| 3<br>(Individual Differences) | 6.96                       | .54 | 6.89                | .14  |
| 4<br>(Teaching Basics)        | 5.17                       | .74 | 4.72                | .32  |
| 5<br>(Drug Abuse Education)   | 6.12                       | .63 | 5.90                | .21  |
| 6<br>(Standardized Testing)   | 4.62                       | .80 | 2.74                | .60  |

$p < .05$

\* Indicates comparison significant at the .05 level

independent variable academic specialization, no responses yielded chi-squares that had a probability level that met the criteria for statistical significance. Analysis of one Experientialist response by program of study (6) yielded a chi-square of 11.91 and a probability coefficient of .02, indicating that a relationship existed.

Table 14 reports the six responses that were developed to measure the Traditionalist curriculum orientation. Of the six responses as a function of the independent variable academic specialization no responses yielded chi-squares that had a probability level that met the criteria for statistical significance. Analysis of one Traditionalist response by program of study (2) yielded a chi-square of 12.27 and a probability coefficient of .02, indicating that a relationship existed.

The probability levels in the majority of individual response items by academic specialization and program of study, as reported in Tables 11, 12, 13, and 14, would lead the researcher to assert that the responses are independent of each other. That is, there are no differences in response patterns between preservice teachers by academic specialization or by program of study.

In Chapter V the results of the study are discussed in relation to the educational philosophies, curriculum orientations, and the independent variables, academic specialization and program of study. Additionally, recommendations for further study are suggested.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION and CONCLUSIONS, and RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter includes a summary of the study, discussion and conclusions, and recommendations for further research.

#### Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the existence of relationships between preservice teachers' educational philosophies and substantive preferences regarding selected dimensions of curriculum orientation. Specifically, the study sought to investigate the relationship of preservice teachers' selected responses to the philosophies of Experimentalism and Rationalism, and to Experientialist and Intellectual Traditionalist curriculum orientations. A conceptual model was constructed which blended an educational philosophy perspective with a curriculum orientation perspective. This model provided a framework out of which twelve hypotheses were generated to guide analysis. Secondary purposes involved exploratory investigation of relationships among preservice teachers' educational philosophies, curriculum orientation, academic specialization, and program of study.

The study utilized a four-section research instrument, A Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences, designed to collect data that, after statistical treatment, would indicate the probability of a group of preservice teachers being representative of a particular philosophy or orientation. The first section of the survey provided a description of the respondent group in terms of demographics and teaching experience. In the second section, subjects were required to provide open-response written descriptions of an ideal in regard to selected curriculum-related components. Subjects were required in the third section of the survey to select preferences from a limited set of choices regarding proposals for effecting curriculum improvements. A twenty-four item forced-choice exercise designed to assess a preference for educational philosophy comprised the final section.

The research sample selected for participation in this study was from fourteen classes in eight universities and community colleges in central and north-central Florida. Of the potential 331 preservice teachers registered in these classes, 298 completed and returned the survey. Of the completed surveys, 34 could not be analyzed because they lacked sufficient demographic data or were incorrectly completed, such as checking only one response or multiple coding using the same rank. The 264 valid responses represented a return rate of 79.76% of the research sample. The responses of these preservice teachers were statistically analyzed using a two-way analysis of variance and a probability coefficient of .05 or greater to reject the null hypothesis pertaining to the dependent variables.



### Discussion and Conclusions

The investigation of the proposed relationship between educational philosophy and orientations to curriculum, as set forth in Chapter III (and illustrated in Figure 3), was designed to produce data relevant to validating the conceptual model. That is, preservice teachers who indicated an educational philosophy of Experimentalism were expected to prefer the Experientialist curriculum orientation. Similarly, preservice teachers who indicated an educational philosophy of Rationalism were expected to prefer the Traditionalist curriculum orientation. However, the reported scores for 54% of the cases, 122 of the 228 of the preservice teachers who showed a preference, revealed incongruous responses in their choice of educational philosophy and curriculum orientation preferences. Summary data regarding combinations of educational philosophies and curriculum orientations is presented in Figure 4.

Preservice teachers in 20 cases, representing 9% of the respondent group, indicated the incongruous combination of Experimentalism with the Traditionalist curriculum orientation. More frequently, preservice teachers indicated Rationalism combined with the Experientialist curriculum orientation in 102 cases, which represents 45% of the respondent group. Further, the reported scores for only 46%, or 106 of the 228 respondents, indicated that there was congruity in their choice of educational philosophy and curriculum orientation responses. Experimentalism combined with the Experientialist curriculum orientation was indicated in 77 cases (34%) and Rationalism combined with the Traditionalist curriculum orientation was indicated in 29 cases (12%) by the respondent group who indicated a preference.

|                 |   |              |
|-----------------|---|--------------|
|                 | Traditionalist<br>curriculum orientation  |              |
|                 | 20<br>(9%)                                | 29<br>(12%)  |
| Experimentalism |   |              |
|                 | 77<br>(34%)                               | 102<br>(45%) |
|                 | Experientialist<br>curriculum orientation |              |
|                 |   | Rationalism  |

Figure 4. Combinations of educational philosophies and curriculum orientations.\*

\* Of the original 264 respondents, 24 showed no preference between the educational philosophies and 12 showed no preference between the curriculum orientations.

Proposed relationships among selected educational philosophies and curriculum orientations were not validated and were occasionally contradicted by the results of the study. As presented in Figure 4, respondents taken as a whole preferred philosophical statements representing the educational philosophy of Rationalism. However, when confronted by problems facing schools, respondents more often selected the Experientialist curriculum orientation as most reflective of their position.

A majority 57% of the respondents preferred the views that reflected the educational philosophy of Rationalism over Experimentalism. However, 79% of the respondents, by a margin of nearly 4-to-1, chose proposals for improving curriculum that represented the Experientialist curriculum orientation over the Traditionalist. The union of these majorities created a group of 102 preservice teachers, 45% of the respondent group, who make claims to prefer both Rationalism and the Experientialist orientation.

The conflict between the preferred educational philosophy and curriculum orientation suggests the possibility that preservice teachers hold an idealistic view of both teaching and students. Although most of the respondents had informal teaching experience, few had been faced with the perennial problems facing classroom teachers. Schubert (1986) suggests that problems facing teachers might be classified relative to three sources of curricular balance: students, subject matter, and societal needs. Student apathy, teaching the basics, and drug abuse education are examples of problems posed to the preservice teachers in this study. The preference for Rationalism suggests that preservice teachers recognize the need for, and intend to procure, an interesting, disciplined, and structured classroom. However, the concurrent preference for the

Experientialist orientation suggests optimism that enthusiasm, discipline, and responsibility can be regulated in some degree by the students in their charge.

The reported means for each group of preservice teachers indicated that there was consistency among the groups as to their choice of educational philosophy and curriculum orientation responses. Each group of preservice teachers, except the academic specialization Social Science, selected Rationalism as most reflective of their position. That is, the educational philosophy of Rationalism was more popular than Experimentalism across each of the three levels of program of study and four of five academic specializations. Further, each group of preservice teachers selected the Experientialist curriculum orientation as most reflective of their position. That is, the Experientialist orientation was more popular than the Traditionalist orientation across each of the three levels of program of study and five academic specializations.

To determine differences between groups the three independent variables presented in Table 10 were analyzed for each of four different dependent variables. Each question was analyzed by stating the problem in the null hypothesis. On the basis of results, none of the hypotheses regarding educational philosophy could be rejected at the established probability level of .05 or less. However, two of the hypotheses regarding curriculum orientation could be rejected.

Rejection of Hypothesis 3B reveals a significant difference in the Experientialist curriculum orientation by type of program of study. Subsequent statistical analysis identified elementary preservice teachers' strong preference for the Experientialist orientation as being significantly different from that of preservice teachers in middle-level

or secondary-level programs. That is, the Experientialist orientation was significantly more popular with the group of preservice teachers intending to teach at the elementary level.

The preferences expressed for a certain curriculum orientation are perhaps connected to images of school organization held by preservice teachers. The self-contained arrangement of students experienced by preservice teachers at the elementary level may appear to be more compatible with the description of the Experientialist orientation in this study. In this student-centered orientation, the teacher provides opportunities for students to reconstruct their experience, study its possible meanings, and interpret its significance for their own sense of meaning and direction. In this view students become agents of their learning and are motivated by their personal interests. Conversely, in the Traditionalist orientation, achievement is defined as knowledge gathered through appreciation of the disciplines that have stood the test of time. In this view an excellent teacher is a subject matter specialist who is able to inspire students to learn a particular discipline. Preservice teachers may have found this orientation more congruous with the subject-centered organization experienced in higher grade levels.

Hypothesis 4B, the second to be rejected, revealed a significant difference in the Traditionalist curriculum orientation, also by type of program of study. Subsequent statistical analysis identified middle-level preservice teachers' strong preference for the Traditionalist orientation as being similar to that of secondary-level preservice teachers yet significantly different from that of preservice teachers in elementary-level programs. That is, the Traditionalist orientation was significantly more popular with the group of

preservice teachers intending to teach at the middle level than with those intended to teach at the elementary level.

Interestingly, preferences for the Traditionalist orientation expressed by middle-level preservice teachers conflicts with the principles for effective curriculum organization advocated by proponents of the middle school movement. These principles, firmly grounded in the characteristics of the learner at the middle level, are congruent with the Experientialist orientation described in this study. Middle-level organization also features a teacher who encourages an interchange of experiences and ideas among students in a facilitator role and adopts practices such as interdisciplinary teams, advisory groups, and other student-centered transitional programs. Further, emphases on organizational aspects of teacher closeness to students and the exploratory nature of the curriculum are examples of non-traditional approaches designed to put the learner-based orientation into practice.

Though not statistically significant, there was a difference in the reported means for the dependent variable curriculum orientation in terms of academic specialization. The reported means for each group of preservice teachers indicated that there was consistency among the groups as to their choice of curriculum orientation responses. As stated above, each group of preservice teachers selected the Experientialist orientation as most reflective of their position. That is, the Experientialist orientation was more popular than the Traditionalist orientation across each of the five academic specializations. Preservice teachers specializing in Math preferred the Experientialist orientation by a slightly higher degree than other groups. Differences in the preferences between groups for the Traditional orientation was minuscule.

Differences in the reported means for the dependent variable educational philosophy in terms of program of study, though also statistically insignificant, were of interest to the researcher. The reported means for each group indicated that there was consistency as to their choice of educational philosophy responses. As stated above, each group of preservice teachers selected Rationalism as most reflective of their position. Interestingly, comparison among groups by program of study revealed that preservice teachers at the middle level showed the least preference for Experimentalism and the greatest preference for Rationalism.

The educational philosophy preference of middle-level preservice teachers is consistent with their respective curriculum orientation preference. As demonstrated by the conceptual model, the weak preference for Experimentalism coincides with the weak preference for the Experientialist orientation. Further, this group also showed the greatest preference for both Rationalism and the Traditionalist orientation. The preferences for Rationalism expressed by the middle-level preservice teachers is further evidence of the conflict with the principles for effective curriculum organization advocated by proponents of the middle school movement.

Statistically insignificant yet interesting differences in the reported means for the dependent variable educational philosophy in terms of academic specialization also were revealed. Overall, the philosophical responses reflecting Rationalism were selected more strongly by the entire sample of 264 preservice teachers than those of Experimentalism. Only the group of Social Science preservice teachers showed a slight preference for Experimentalism over Rationalism. The group of preservice teachers specializing in Math

showed the greatest preference for Experimentalism and those in Science showed the least. Interestingly, both groups reacted the same to philosophy statements representing Rationalism. Again, the group of preservice teachers specializing in Math demonstrated the greatest preference for Rationalism and those specializing in Science demonstrated the least.

Generalizability of the above findings may be possible given replication of this study in the future in other teacher education settings. However, the following conclusions regarding the limitations associated with this study have also been identified:

1. The research design used in this study is a one measurement, cross-sectional design. Since participants responded to all self-report questionnaire items at one time, they may have responded reactively and more consistently than what would have been true at different times.
2. Subjects were not randomly selected. Students in several teacher education programs in Florida comprised a purposive sample for data collection.
3. The research instrument used in this study does not clearly discriminate for statistical analysis the possibility of significant differences among preservice teachers as to their educational philosophy.
4. Studying preservice teachers educational philosophies and curriculum orientations in a quantitative manner such as forced choices or rank ordering may be beyond the scope of practicality given the limitations of research instruments available at this time.



### Recommendations for Further Research

Considering the findings and limitations of this study, the writer is enthusiastic in making recommendations for additional research in this area. The following recommendations come from a continued belief stated in the justification for this study. That is, rather than placing emphasis on training teachers with specific knowledge needed for teaching in a particular academic specialization or grade level, teacher educators could take a closer look at the practical knowledge preservice teachers bring to an education program. Johnston (1992) asserts that one of the foremost tasks of teacher educators should be that of "exploring the evolving practical knowledge of our student teachers so that we can build programs that assist them to develop, understand, articulate, and utilize that practical knowledge." In this view, teacher education provides avenues for student teachers to understand the values, attitudes, and beliefs they bring to a preservice teacher education program and then to plot and monitor their own professional growth thereafter.

The following recommendations for further research in this area are offered:

1. A different method of data collection, such as observations and interviews, could produce a greater understanding of how preservice teachers come to hold the beliefs they profess.
2. Pre and posttest designs could be implemented to determine the effects of participation in teacher education course activities on preservice teachers' perceptions and judgments regarding curriculum issues.

3. A study could be designed to view the language of preservice teachers who have experienced a course in educational philosophy as part of their teacher education program.
4. A study could be designed that investigates demographic variables of preservice teachers, such as gender, age, race, and years of experience, as the independent variables to determine their educational philosophy and curriculum orientation.
5. A longitudinal study could connect beliefs expressed by preservice teachers with subsequent practices as teaching interns or as beginning teachers.
6. A study could be designed that investigates the beliefs and practices of experienced, successful teachers and administrators in exemplary schools.

APPENDIX A  
RESEARCH INSTRUMENT:  
A SURVEY OF EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY  
AND CURRICULUM ORIENTATION PREFERENCES

# A SURVEY OF EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY AND CURRICULUM ORIENTATION PREFERENCES

Developed by  
W. Scott Wise, Ed.S.  
Department of Instruction and Curriculum  
The University of Florida

This exercise is designed to incorporate a wide range of opinions and views about what might be considered important to educators. Its purpose is two-fold:

1. To provide a construct for reflecting on our views and ideals of teaching, and
2. To collect information about opinions held by preservice teachers who are engaged in the study of instruction and curriculum.

There is no risk or immediate benefit from participating in this exercise. For participating you will receive a summary of the "Issues and Terminology" of the underlying theories of this exercise. You will also receive an invitation to a seminar designed to explore your responses and their relevance to your teaching career.

## INSTRUCTIONS

STEP ONE -- Complete this survey that is organized in four sections:

- Section I: Demographic and Experience Information
- Section II: Images of Curriculum
- Section III: School Problems and Proposals
- Section IV: Educational Philosophy Statements

Specific directions are contained at the beginning of each section.

Please respond as honestly and as openly as possible.

You do not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer.

Be assured that all responses will remain completely anonymous.

STEP TWO -- Read the packet of materials after responding to the survey.

STEP THREE -- Attend the Seminar to explore the significance of your responses.

(Or include your mailing address in the space provided below.)

If you have any questions regarding the content or procedures of this survey feel free to contact me anytime. My mailing address is Department of Instruction and Curriculum, Norman 2215, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida 32601. My business phone is (407) 876-6759. Thank you again for your cooperation. Questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant may be directed to the University of Florida Institutional Review Board Office, Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611.

\*\*\*\*\*

I have read the procedure described above. I agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description.

Participant's Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_  
Address (optional) \_\_\_\_\_ City/State \_\_\_\_\_ Zip \_\_\_\_\_

## Section I: DEMOGRAPHIC AND EXPERIENCE INFORMATION

Directions: Please respond to each of the following as indicated.

All information is kept in strict confidence.

1. NAME (Last) \_\_\_\_\_ (First) \_\_\_\_\_

(Optional: For returning the results of your survey only)

2. CURRENT CLASS: (Check one)

- ☐ Freshman
- ☐ Sophomore
- ☐ Junior
- ☐ Senior
- ☐ Graduate Student
- ☐ Other, (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

6. GENDER: ☐ Female  
☐ Male

7. AGE: ☐ 18 - 25  
☐ 26 - 35  
☐ over 35

3. PROGRAM OF STUDY:

- ☐ Early Childhood
- ☐ Elementary Education
- ☐ Middle Level Education
- ☐ Secondary Education
- ☐ Masters Certification
- ☐ Other, (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

8. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY:

Have you taken a course? \_\_\_\_\_

If so, When? \_\_\_\_\_

Where? \_\_\_\_\_

4. ACADEMIC SPECIALIZATION:

(Outside the College of Education)

- ☐ English
- ☐ Mathematics
- ☐ Social Science
- ☐ Science
- ☐ Other, (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

9. TEACHING EXPERIENCE:

Age(s): of children involved

Time: amount -- days, years, etc.

How: How you were involved  
with these children; siblings,  
tutoring project, etc.

☐ Tutoring  
Age(s) \_\_\_\_\_

Time \_\_\_\_\_

How \_\_\_\_\_

☐ Coaching  
Age(s) \_\_\_\_\_

Time \_\_\_\_\_

How \_\_\_\_\_

☐ Teaching  
Age(s) \_\_\_\_\_

Time \_\_\_\_\_

How \_\_\_\_\_

5. PROFESSIONAL SPECIALIZATION:

(Within the College of Education)

- ☐ Middle Grade Education
- ☐ Children's Literature
- ☐ Mathematics Education
- ☐ Special Education
- ☐ Other, (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

Other Teaching Experiences:

(Describe on the back of this page.)

## Section II: IMAGES OF TEACHING

Imagine that you are now finished with your teacher education program and several years of teaching. You are now an “experienced teacher” and are close to the “teacher you want to be.” Picture your classroom, yourself, your students. Imagine that I have dropped in to visit you during a representative part of the academic school day (that is, during the time you are teaching as opposed to planning, or taking students to lunch, etc.) Answer the following questions to tell me about what I would see. Provide me with as much detail as you can to help develop a picture of the teacher you want to become.

1. What grade are you teaching?
2. How many students are in your class?
3. What is the current topic of study?
4. Draw a picture of yourself and your children.
5. Tell me in as much detail as you can what you are doing.  
What are you saying? What materials are you using?  
With whom are you talking? What are you thinking?

## Section II: IMAGES OF TEACHING (continued)

Imagine that you are now finished with your teacher education program and several years of teaching. You are now an “experienced teacher” and are close to the “teacher you want to be.” Picture your classroom, yourself, your students. Imagine that I have dropped in to visit you during a representative part of the academic school day (that is, during the time you are teaching as opposed to planning, or taking students to lunch, etc.) Answer the following questions to tell me about what I would see. Provide me with as much detail as you can to help develop a picture of the teacher you want to become.

1. What grade are you teaching?
2. How many students are in your class?
3. What is the current topic of study?
4. Draw a picture of yourself and your children.
5. Tell me in as much detail as you can what you are doing.  
What are you saying? What materials are you using?  
With whom are you talking? What are you thinking?

### Section III: SCHOOL PROBLEMS AND PROPOSALS<sup>a</sup>

Directions: Each of the six topics listed below is followed by three related statements. For each topic, indicate the statement that is MOST reflective of your position by placing a "1" in the blank space on the left. Place a "2" next to the statement SOMEWHAT reflective of your position and place a "3" next to the LEAST. PLEASE FILL IN EACH BLANK.

#### STUDENT APATHY

- \_\_\_ When teachers show students that they can achieve more meaning and direction in their lives by participating in school, there will be much less apathy and attendance problems.
- \_\_\_ When teachers use a structured system of incentives, students will come to school. A system of instruction informed by research can then motivate students into productive learning.
- \_\_\_ When teachers convey that within their discipline lies insight into the great events and mysteries of life, students will feel fulfillment and joy. This does much to prevent apathy.

#### MAINTAINING CLASSROOM DISCIPLINE

- \_\_\_ People are not born self-disciplined. One of the teacher's major functions is to mold the student into a disciplined individual prepared to fit into society. Teaching that is well prepared, rather fast-paced, and task-oriented keeps students on their toes and interested.
- \_\_\_ Students must first be made to pay attention. If students listen to teachers who know and love their subject, they will soon realize great personal enrichment that an education offers. At that point discipline will switch from required to self-initiated.
- \_\_\_ Discipline is inherent in human nature. It is only when students see knowledge as irrelevant that discipline problems occur. The teacher's central job is to get to know students well enough to enable them to discover knowledge that helps to meet their needs.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Possibility," Schubert (1986).



### Section III: SCHOOL PROBLEMS AND PROPOSALS<sup>a</sup> (continued)

#### INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN STUDENTS

- \_\_\_ Individual differences are much exaggerated today in education. At the root of all individual needs, we can find common problems and ideas. These are treated in great literature, and this is the reason the classics and the disciplines are of perennial value.
- \_\_\_ If we treat all students alike, their differences become exaggerated. What is needed is careful attention to the needs and interests of each individual and to each group of students.
- \_\_\_ Diagnostic testing of needs, matching instruction to fit learning styles, and evaluation that fits program goals is only one example of the type of systematic approaches available to deal with individual differences of many kinds.

#### TEACHING THE "BASICS"

- \_\_\_ Family, friendship, work, marriage, raising children, and enjoying oneself are the important basic aspects of our daily lives. The skills important to leading a good life are related to human relations and include communication, needs identification, and problem solving.
- \_\_\_ The basics (reading, writing, and arithmetic) are needed for participation in society and are the building blocks of communication and cognitive performance. Educational research reveals that these and related skills can be taught more directly and efficiently than ever before.
- \_\_\_ The basics of a meaningful life include: the wonders of culture, the beauty of the arts, science as a key to mysteries, and humanities as a door to the human mind and spirit. These can be learned through a relationship with a great teacher who deeply understands their discipline.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Possibility," Schubert (1986).

### Section III: SCHOOL PROBLEMS AND PROPOSALS<sup>a</sup> (continued)

#### DRUG ABUSE EDUCATION

- \_\_\_ To a large extent, schools today are trying to provide courses to combat every serious social problem. The result is curricula that are becoming increasingly watered-down, unmanageable, and lacking in purpose.
- \_\_\_ If students are involved with drugs, have questions about them, or just want to talk about the peer pressure associated with them, schools should provide opportunity to pursue this interest.
- \_\_\_ Schools can meet their obligation to help solve one of society's most destructive behavior problems through the use of well-designed instructional packages on drug education.

#### USING STANDARDIZED TEST SCORES

- \_\_\_ We cannot measure educational products in terms of dollars as corporations measure their profits. However, the best that we can do, in the interest of objectivity, is use standardized test scores.
- \_\_\_ Standardized aptitude tests can be of some use in determining who has a propensity to study an area, however teachers should have the primary responsibility for assessment of student progress.
- \_\_\_ Students devalue other aspects of their unique identity, and are treated as labels instead of unique individuals when standardized test scores are used as the prime measure of productivity.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Possibility," Schubert (1986).

## Section IV: EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY STATEMENTS<sup>b</sup>

In this questionnaire you will be asked to respond to statements about education philosophy. Please read each statement and then indicate your response by circling one of the following:

- (A) I STRONGLY AGREE with this statement.
- (B) I AGREE to a certain extent with this statement.
- (C) I have NO OPINION or this statement DOES NOT APPLY to my situation.
- (D) I DISAGREE to a certain extent with this statement.
- (E) I STRONGLY DISAGREE with this statement.

- |  |                         |
|--|-------------------------|
| 1. In this period of rapid change, it is highly important that education be charged with the task of preserving intact the long established and enduring educational aims and social objectives. | 1    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 2. The true view of education is so arranging learning that the child gradually builds up a storehouse of knowledge that he can use in the future.   | 2    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 3. In assessing what man knows, there are no absolutes, only tentative conclusions based on the current accumulation of human experiences.   | 3    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 4. Required reading of literary works, even though it may bring an unfavorable attitude toward literature, is necessary in a sound educational program.  | 4    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 5. To learn means to devise a way of acting in a situation for which old ways are inadequate.  | 5    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 6. In the interest of social stability, the youth of this generation must be brought into conformity with the beliefs and institutions of our national heritage.                                 | 6    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 7. Learning is a process of mastering objective knowledge and developing skills by drill, trial and error, memorization, and logical education.  | 7    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 8. The teacher must indoctrinate students with correct moral principles in order to bring about their healthy moral development.   | 8    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 9. Moral education is the continuous criticism and reconstruction of ideals and values.  | 9    A   B   C   D   E  |
| 10. The traditional moral standards of our culture should not just be accepted; they should be examined and tested in solving the present problems of students.                                  | 10    A   B   C   D   E |
| 11. The backbone of the school curriculum is subject matter; activities are useful mainly to facilitate the learning of subject matter.  | 11    A   B   C   D   E |
| 12. A teacher may properly teach that some laws are unchanging and certain in their essential nature.  | 12    A   B   C   D   E |

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<sup>b</sup> Source: Items adapted from "A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy," Educational and Psychological Measurement, Vol. 26, No. 2, Curran, et al., 1966.

#### Section IV: EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY STATEMENTS<sup>b</sup>

In this questionnaire you will be asked to respond to statements about education philosophy. Please read each statement and then indicate your response by circling one of the following:

- (A) I STRONGLY AGREE with this statement.
- (B) I AGREE to a certain extent with this statement.
- (C) I have NO OPINION or this statement DOES NOT APPLY to my situation.
- (D) I DISAGREE to a certain extent with this statement.
- (E) I STRONGLY DISAGREE with this statement.

- |  |    |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|----|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. In this period of rapid change, it is highly important that education be charged with the task of preserving intact the long established and enduring educational aims and social objectives. | 1  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 2. The true view of education is so arranging learning that the child gradually builds up a storehouse of knowledge that he can use in the future.   | 2  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 3. In assessing what man knows, there are no absolutes, only tentative conclusions based on the current accumulation of human experiences.   | 3  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 4. Required reading of literary works, even though it may bring an unfavorable attitude toward literature, is necessary in a sound educational program.  | 4  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 5. To learn means to devise a way of acting in a situation for which old ways are inadequate.  | 5  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 6. In the interest of social stability, the youth of this generation must be brought into conformity with the beliefs and institutions of our national heritage.                                 | 6  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. Learning is a process of mastering objective knowledge and developing skills by drill, trial and error, memorization, and logical education.  | 7  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. The teacher must indoctrinate students with correct moral principles in order to bring about their healthy moral development.   | 8  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. Moral education is the continuous criticism and reconstruction of ideals and values.  | 9  | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. The traditional moral standards of our culture should not just be accepted; they should be examined and tested in solving the present problems of students.                                  | 10 | A | B | C | D | E |
| 11. The backbone of the school curriculum is subject matter; activities are useful mainly to facilitate the learning of subject matter.  | 11 | A | B | C | D | E |
| 12. A teacher may properly teach that some laws are unchanging and certain in their essential nature.  | 12 | A | B | C | D | E |

<sup>b</sup> Source: Items adapted from "A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy," Educational and Psychological Measurement, Vol. 26, No. 2, Curran, et al., 1966.

APPENDIX B  
SEMINAR READING MATERIALS:  
THREE CURRICULUM ORIENTATIONS  
AND PUBLIC VALUES OF EDUCATION

Post-Survey READING MATERIALS  
for  
A SURVEY OF EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY  
AND CURRICULUM ORIENTATION PREFERENCES

Governmental Issues

What is your "position" on the following issues regarding the U.S. government?

- \* Drug laws do more harm than good and should be repealed.
- \* Citizens should be allowed to own handguns.
- \* Tariffs and other barriers to free trade should be eliminated.
- \* Sex legislation for consenting adults should be repealed.

Do your preferences align with the political philosophy of:

Liberals (Democrats)? . . . or Conservatives (Republicans)?

Do you favor more (bureaucratic) or less (libertarian) government intervention into our homes?

Would you expect a "professional" politician to have an informed position regarding these issues?

Educational Issues

What is your "position" on the following issues regarding the U.S. school system?

- \* There should exist a national core curriculum.
- \* School attendance should be voluntary.
- \* A "voucher system" would improve the current state of U.S. schooling.
- \* School funding should not be tied to property taxes.

Do your preferences align with the political philosophy of the:

Liberals (Equity)? . . . or Conservatives (Excellence)?

Do you favor MORE (Efficiency) or LESS (Liberty) educational intervention into our schools?

Would you expect a "professional" educator to have an informed position regarding these issues?

ABOUT THIS EXERCISE

I hope that through this exercise you gain a better understanding the complicated (and politically driven) world of U.S. schooling. Use this as a "foundation" or philosophical "base" from which you build your philosophy as you continue your study of teaching, instruction and curriculum.

Step 1: Complete the "Survey of Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation Preferences" (You already did that!)

Step 2: Read the following pages regarding: "Three Curriculum Orientations" "Experimentalism vs. Rationalism", and "Public Values of Education".

Step 3: Review your "Preference Score" from the survey. Compare your Educational Philosophy and Curriculum Orientation with your colleagues and instructors.

Thank you again for your participation. I welcome any comments regarding the exercise or seminar. I am also available for individual consultation regarding the exercise. I can be contacted through the Office of Instruction and Curriculum, 2215 Norman Hall, Gainesville, FL 32601. (352) 392-0751

W. Scott Wise

### THREE CURRICULUM ORIENTATIONS<sup>a</sup>

#### EXPERIENTIALIST

(Relaxed, easy-going, sits in front of the room, encourages questions throughout his address.)

- What? The curriculum consists of a dialogue; an interchange of experiences and ideas, not just among experts or from experts to recipients, but among everyone engaged in the educative process.
- Why? Individuals are agents of their own learning, they are basically good, reflect upon their own experience, and are drawn together to others who share similar situations. Only when each person's learning grows from his or her own experience can it truly be 'for' that learner. This is the true democracy, and the opposite of what is happening in most schools today.
- How? We move from the psychological to the logical. We begin with the learners' genuine interests (not whims) that are embedded in their experience and enable them to pursue those interests gradually by becoming acquainted with the disciplines of knowledge.
- Who? The curriculum must involve teachers, students, community members, and curriculum leaders in a shared community of growth. All of them must acknowledge that they can both teach and learn from the others in honest and worthwhile ways.
- Where? Anywhere that learners can genuinely reflect on their experience and act on the fruits of that reflection to reconstruct their personal perspectives and political institutions. Because of the autocracy and oppressive control exerted by many schools, this is perhaps best done outside of formal educative institutions.
- When? Education occurs continuously as we experience life.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Possibility," Schubert, 1986.

### Three Curriculum Orientations<sup>a</sup> (continued)

#### SOCIAL BEHAVIORIST

(Paces in front of the room; appears as a typical scientist; exudes efficiency.)

- What?** The curriculum should consist of operationally designed skills and knowledge. Such knowledge consists of traditional "basic" subjects such as mathematics, social sciences, natural sciences, and the humanities and arts. Much more emphasis should be place on science, technology, and mathematics, and on the preparation for the world of work.
- Why?** We have moved beyond the agricultural and industrial revolutions into a postindustrial society where communication is the mechanism by which economies flourish. Students must be prepared to enter this new world.
- How?** First, we need to apply educational research knowledge to our schools. Second, we need more and better research on how learning takes place and how different categories of learners can best be taught.
- Who?** First, we need more and better researchers. Second, we need applied researchers who develop the means for improving learning in experimental schools. Third, we need teachers (and administrators) who are able and willing to design and use curricular packages based on this research. As to who should be educated; everyone according to their capacity. We are continually refining our ability to assess students and place them in appropriate educational settings.
- Where?** Appropriate curricula can be most efficiently delivered by schools and technical institutions. Within these schools there should be a planned variation of learning environments to accommodate the particular skills needed by categories of carefully evaluated student needs.
- When?** Formal education should begin early and, in our continually changing society, should also be available to retrain people who need new skills throughout adult life. "When" also refers to proper sequencing of instruction, one of the primary tasks for educational researchers to analyze.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Possibility," Schubert, 1986.



### Three Curriculum Orientations<sup>a</sup> (continued)

#### INTELLECTUAL TRADITIONALIST

(Standing at a podium in nearly formal attire; obviously steeped in the classics.)

- What? The curriculum should consist of the liberal arts tradition. Learners should be exposed to the great books, and of course would need facility in the technique and art of reading, writing, and computing.
- Why? The benefits are twofold: to develop the mind and to become acquainted with life's great ideas and questions. The ideas (i.e., beauty, truth, equality, justice) and questions regarding the events of life (i.e., birth, death, love, society) are themes that recur timelessly in great literature.
- How? Acquaintance with the great books develops the mind and introduces the great mysteries and events of life. This derives from serious reading, contemplation, and discussion. It can be refined by rigorous writing and motivated by excellent lectures and Socratic questioning.
- Who? Everyone should have this type of education. Even young children can be exposed to great myths, fables, poetry, songs, paintings, and stories. Since we are never completely educated, the teacher must be a person who is becoming liberally educated himself or herself.
- Where? Ideally, one should always pursue one's education. Formal education, however, should take place in schools or tutorials.
- When? Education should proceed throughout life. It should especially be made available to the young, similar to the school system as we know it today.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Possibility," Schubert, 1986.

EXPERIMENTALISM vs. RATIONALISM<sup>a</sup>

|                                   |   |  |
|-----------------------------------|---|--|
| What is Real<br>ONTOLOGY          | Reality is a world<br>of experiences                    | Reality is a world<br>of the mind/reason                                     |
| What is Knowledge<br>EPISTEMOLOGY | Knowledge is what<br>works; what is                     | Knowledge is a<br>consistency of ideas;<br>what is revealed<br>through study |
| What is Good<br>AXIOLOGY          | Good is determined<br>by a test of public standards     | Good is imitation<br>of the ideal self                                       |
| Teaching Reality                  | Subject matter of social<br>experiences- social studies | Subject matter of the<br>mind -- literature,<br>philosophy, religion         |
| Teaching Truth                    | Problem solving,<br>project method                      | Discipline the mind;<br>drill, lecture and<br>discussion                     |
| Teaching Goodness<br>(Values)     | Making group decisions<br>in light of consequences      | Disciplining behavior;<br>imitating heroes and<br>other exemplars            |

<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Curriculum Development: A Guide to Practice,"  
Wiles & Bondi, 1993.

## PUBLIC VALUES OF EDUCATION<sup>a</sup>

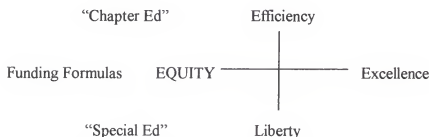
At the heart of educational policy debates are four widely held but conflicting values:

Equity, Excellence, Efficiency, and Liberty.

Even those these values are deeply embedded in our American heritage, they exist in a constant state of tension such that too much emphasis on any one hinders expression of each of the other three.

### EQUITY

“Fairness is sharing the resources available for schooling according to need.”

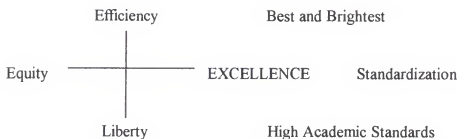


Fair play and EQUAL OPPORTUNITY do not always mean provision of identical resources to each student or the same access to every educational program. Sometimes sameness is considered unfair. The “handicapping” systems used in sports such as golf and bowling are an example of providing for an “equitable” or evenhanded chance to win. The reasoning is similar in providing “special-education” students more resources than are afforded to “regular” students.

<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from “Educational Governance and Administration,” Sergiovanni et al., 1987.

Public Values of Education<sup>a</sup> (continued)EXCELLENCE

“The achievement of high standards is maintained through traditional values.”



Of the four values, Excellence is the most difficult to define. This difficulty stems in part from the political rhetoric with which the word is used by special-interest groups who favor one or another of the other values. Excellence is defined in terms of the Equity value when it describes a program's ability to respond to underprivileged groups.

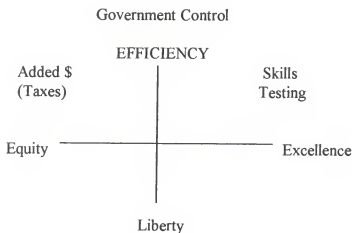
Excellence is defined in the Efficiency value when programs result in higher test scores or other measurable objectives. Finally, Excellence is described in the Liberty value when it describes programs that are locally determined to meet local needs.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Educational Governance and Administration," Sergiovanni et al., 1987.

Public Values of Education<sup>a</sup> (continued)EFFICIENCY

“America’s concern for accountability, getting one’s money’s worth.”



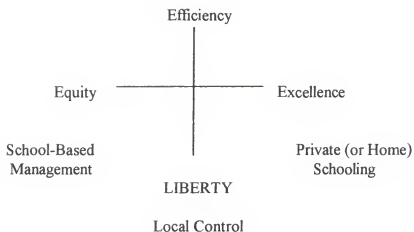
Accountability is manifested in the form of product testing (students), program budgeting (objectives), and adoption of systems-analysis designs that emphasize efficiency in operations. However, teacher salaries are the greatest cost (usually about 85%) of any school budget. Questions are raised, rightly or not, in the mind of the public when teacher salaries increase without measurable increases in productivity.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from “Educational Governance and Administration,” Sergiovanni et al., 1987.

Public Values of Education<sup>a</sup> (continued)LIBERTY

“Choice: local control of our education and our schools.”



Schools are particularly significant in maintaining the value of Liberty, for they represent the last vestige of local control in the tradition of the town meeting and the local tax referendum. The slipping away of local control, or centralization, requires that decision be made at a higher and more remote level, farther away from the school or classroom.

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from “Educational Governance and Administration,” Sergiovanni et al., 1987.

APPENDIX C  
SEMINAR HANDOUTS:  
SUMMARY OF RESPONSES  
TO THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

## Summary of Responses to the PROBLEMS FACING CURRICULUM<sup>a</sup>

School problems have a way of returning every ten years or so depending on social conditions. The labels may change, but many of the problems, and proposals for correcting them are perennial. In this section, you made a forced choice of these reoccurring problems and proposals in an effort to examine their curriculum implications from three perspectives or "orientations".

The following is a key to the survey Section III: Problems Facing Curriculum.

### Instructional (Classroom) Problems

| APATHY                                   | DISCIPLINE                               | IND DIFF                                 |
|--|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Experientialist | <input type="checkbox"/> Behaviorist     | <input type="checkbox"/> Traditionalist  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Behaviorist     | <input type="checkbox"/> Traditionalist  | <input type="checkbox"/> Experientialist |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Traditionalist  | <input type="checkbox"/> Experientialist | <input type="checkbox"/> Behaviorist     |

### Institutional (School) Problems

| BASICS                                   | DRUG ABUSE                               | STAND TEST                               |
|--|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Experientialist | <input type="checkbox"/> Traditionalist  | <input type="checkbox"/> Behaviorist     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Behaviorist     | <input type="checkbox"/> Experientialist | <input type="checkbox"/> Traditionalist  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Traditionalist  | <input type="checkbox"/> Behaviorist     | <input type="checkbox"/> Experientialist |

### Calculating Your Score

To calculate your score add the six (6) numbers for each of the orientations and place them in the blanks provided below. Your preferred orientation is the LOWEST SCORE.

Experientialist       Behaviorist       Traditionalist

Do you seem to have a strong preference for one of the three orientations?  
How well does your curriculum orientation match your Educational Philosophy?

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<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Perspective," Schubert, 1986.



Summary of Responses to the  
EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY STATEMENTS<sup>a</sup>

The following is a scoring exercise and key to the Survey Section IV: Educational Philosophy Statements. For each of your responses, assign the following points:

- (A) Strongly Agree = +2  
(B) Somewhat Agree = +1  
(C) No Opinion/Apply = 0  
(D) Somewhat Disagree = -1  
(E) Strongly Disagree = -2

|   | EXPERIMENTALISM | RATIONALISM                |
|---|-----------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Preserving established aims and objectives             |                 | 1. _____                   |
| 2. Building knowledge for use in the future               |                 | 2. _____                   |
| 3. Making conclusions based on experience                 | _____ 3.        |                            |
| 4. Requiring reading of classic literary works            |                 | 4. _____                   |
| 5. Learning means for devising new methods                | _____ 5.        |                            |
| 6. Bringing youth into conformity with society            |                 | 6. _____                   |
| 7. Mastering skills and knowledge by repetition           |                 | 7. _____                   |
| 8. Indoctrinating students with moral principles          |                 | 8. _____                   |
| 9. Reconstructing moral ideals and values                 | _____ 9.        |                            |
| 10. Examining and testing moral standards                 | _____ 10.       |                            |
| 11. Facilitating learning through subject matter          |                 | 11. _____                  |
| 12. Teaching that some laws are unchanging                |                 | 12. _____                  |
| 13. Teaching children to test moral alternatives          | _____ 13.       |                            |
| 14. Requiring minimum basic standards of achievement      |                 | 14. _____                  |
| 15. Revising existing knowledge in the light of new facts | _____ 15.       |                            |
| 16. Learning history because it embraces wisdom           |                 | 16. _____                  |
| 17. Training the skills of reasoning and memory           |                 | 17. _____                  |
| 18. Transmitting knowledge from teacher to student        |                 | 18. _____                  |
| 19. Preparing for the future by studying the past         |                 | 19. _____                  |
| 20. Arranging curriculum to represent our heritage        |                 | 20. _____                  |
| 21. Regarding child life as inherently valuable           | _____ 21.       |                            |
| 22. Mastering knowledge as the aim of instruction         |                 | 22. _____                  |
| 23. Denying reality beyond human experience               | _____ 23.       |                            |
| 24. Learning as increasing the storehouse of knowledge    |                 | 24. _____                  |
|   | EXP ( x 2 )     |                            |
| (Add Columns, Negative Totals Possible)                   | TOTALS: = _____ | = _____<br>(See Next Page) |

<sup>a</sup> Source: Items adapted from "A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy," Educational and Psychological Measurement, Vol. 26, No. 2, Curran, et al., 1966.

## Summary of Responses, Philosophy Statements (Continued)

## SCORING RESULTS

If, in scoring the exercise, you find that a majority of your agreement falls in a single column, you are selecting a dominant set of beliefs. If you discover yourself spread rather evenly, you may have an eclectic set of educational values. Indecisiveness in agreeing or disagreeing (answering "C" several times) could indicate other values and beliefs not contained within one of these major educational systems.

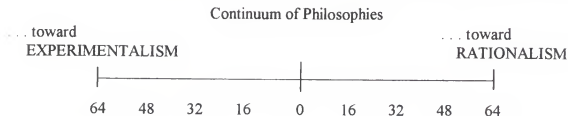
In all formal systems of philosophy, an important measure of the system's validity is its consistency. Your consistency in taking this test can be measured by comparing your prediction with your score. Again, keep in mind, lack of consistency may also be due to valuing another set of educational beliefs, consistent in themselves, but not included as one of the possible systems selected for representation here.

Calculating Your Score

To calculate your score *subtract* the smaller total (on the previous page) from the larger, then, keep the side of the larger.

Example: (EXP 30) minus (RAT 18) = (EXP 12)

(EXP 12) minus (RAT -12) = (EXP 24), in the case of a negative column total.



Are you comfortable with your place on the continuum? Any questions? . . . discussion?

How do you compare with your peers? . . . with the your school and instructors?

APPENDIX D  
CORRESPONDENCE

Tuesday, May 13, 1997

MEMO

TO: Dr. Peter Gorman, Instructor  
EDF 2005, Seminole Community College

FR: W. Scott Wise  
136 Oakdale Street  
Windermere, Florida 34786  
(407) 876-6759

RE: Introduction to Education PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION SEMINAR

Thank you again for participating in this research project. Enclosed is the set of materials used in Introduction to Education courses in central Florida this semester. The exercise is in two parts:

- (1) A (40-45 minute) take-home (or in-class) SURVEY that includes:  
Section I: Demographics (approx. 5 minutes to complete)  
Section II: Images of Teaching (approx. 15 minutes)  
Section III: Problems and Proposals (approx. 10-15 minutes)  
Section IV: Educational Philosophy Statements (approx. 10 minutes)
- (2) A SEMINAR that includes an 8-page handout designed to enhance the discussion and explain the meaning of the exercise and scores.  
(15-60 minutes of class time; at the discretion of the instructor).  
A sample of this handout is included with the instructor's copy of the survey.

Copies of the SURVEY can be distributed at any time prior to my presentation. Ideally, they could be handed out next week, TUESDAY, MAY 20 and returned to you in class on THURSDAY, MAY 22. This will enable us to include the data in the study.

At this time I am available to conduct the seminar in your class on the following evenings:

- |                     |                    |                     |
|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| * Tuesday, May 27   | * Thursday, May 29 | * Tuesday, June 10  |
| * Thursday, June 12 | * Tuesday, June 17 | * Thursday, June 19 |

Feel free to call me at my Orlando home (# above) to arrange for a convenient seminar date, or if you have any questions or comments regarding the exercise. Thanks again.

Tuesday, May 27, 1997

MEMO

TO: Dr. Peter Gorman, Instructor  
EDF 2005, Seminole Community College

FR: W. Scott Wise  
136 Oakdale Street  
Windermere, Florida 34786  
(407) 876-6759

RE: PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION Exercise Results

Thank you again for participating in this research project. Individual and class results for your group will be provided during the seminar. Many participants expressed an interest in comparing their scores with classmates and the overall sample population. Below is the final average (mean) statistics all participants in the study to date.

|                                    | EDUCATIONAL<br>PHILOSOPHY<br>Exp. vs. Rat. | CURRICULUM<br>ORIENTATION<br>1st Choice E-B-T                | CURRICULUM<br>ORIENTATION<br>Exp. vs. Trad.<br>Head-to-Head |
|------------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Total Study<br>(300+ participants) | Rationalism 4.0                            | Experientialist 40%<br>Behaviorist 30%<br>Traditionalist 30% | 65% to 35%  |

I look forward to meeting with your class and conducting the follow-up seminar next week.

Thursday, May 29, 1997

MEMO

TO: Dr. Peter Gorman, Instructor  
EDF 2005, Seminole Community College

FR: W. Scott Wise  
136 Oakdale Street  
Windermere, Florida 34786  
(407) 876-6759

RE: Philosophy of Education Follow-Up

Thank you for offering to your students the opportunity to participate in this education research project. The enthusiasm expressed by the group during the seminar was encouraging and very much appreciated.

A copy of the research findings will be delivered to you upon completion of the project.  
Thanks again!

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH


William Scott Wise was born March 1, 1957, in Cleveland, Ohio. After graduating from Daytona Mainland High School in 1974, he attended the University of Florida, Gainesville, receiving a Bachelor of Music Education degree from the College of Fine Arts.

Mr. Wise taught for eight years in the public schools of Ventura County, California, and Nassua and Volusia Counties in Florida. In 1987, he entered the Graduate School of the University of Florida, where he received the Master of Education degree in administration and supervision in 1988 and the specialist degree in educational leadership in 1989.

After working as a public school administrator, Mr. Wise began working as a graduate teaching assistant supervising teaching interns in the Department of Instruction and Curriculum. He also worked in the Office of Instructional Resources as a tutor and instructor until 1997 when he resigned to begin full-time work in the doctoral program in education instruction and curriculum at the University of Florida.

Mr. Wise is married to the former Karen Peterson of Winter Park, Florida. They currently reside in Windermere, Florida.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

  
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Associate Professor of  
Instruction and Curriculum


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

  
Eugene A. Todd  
Professor of Instruction and Curriculum

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

  
Arthur O. White  
Professor of Foundations of Education

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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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